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Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



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SERVICE ORGAN FOR AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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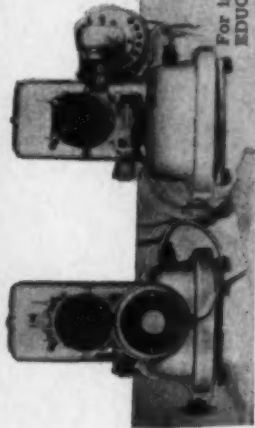
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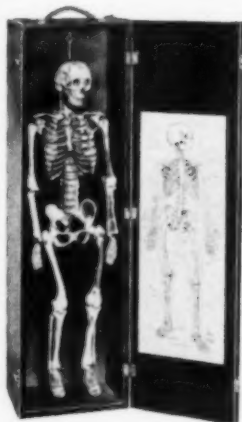
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
The Unique Features of Our American Schools..... J. B. Conant.....	3
Educational Statesmanship As a Principal Sees It..... H. G. Spalding.....	15
Educational Statesmanship As a Superintendent Sees It..... Howard Seymour.....	23
The Classroom Teacher and the Program of Supervision..... E. K. Stock.....	29
The Oregon Evaluative Criteria Program..... Clyde Martin.....	34
The Meaning of Evaluation in Education..... B. E. Blanchard.....	39
The Position of the Subordinate Administrator in the Secondary School..... L. G. Brandes.....	46
An Intern Reports..... R. W. Seltzer.....	53
Improved Educational Backgrounds of Alabama High School Principals..... H. H. Punke.....	59
The Southern High School Principal and Desegregation..... S. P. Wiggins.....	72
The Functions of Secondary Education..... J. R. Morris.....	80
Practices of High Schools in the Management of Concessions..... L. E. McCann.....	82
Contractual Relationships in Pupil Transportation..... H. H. Punke.....	86
The Assignment and Induction of New Teachers..... L. M. Christophe.....	98
The Role of Courses in Education at the Level of the Master's Degree..... A. G. Wirth.....	104
Why Not Use Discussion at Your Faculty Meeting?..... D. C. Blanding.....	108
A Teacher's Creed..... Eugene Youngert.....	113
Techniques in Scheduling..... C. C. Wills, Jr.....	117
Testing Economic Knowledge and Attitudes..... L. E. Wagner.....	120
God Bless the CRMD'S..... Joseph Bellafiore.....	133

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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	<i>Page</i>
Administrative Leadership Can Improve Science Education	Charles Tobias.....135
Vitalize Your High School PTA.....	R. C. Bryan and Mrs. Mildred Beisel.....139
Using Special Subject Teachers As Resource People in a Core Program.....	R. E. Krebs.....146
Sanitation in the School Lunch Program.....	Roslyn Willett.....149
Building Good Public Relations with a Summer School...	E. M. Gleason.....153
Public Relations through Parent Meetings.....	E. R. Cuony.....156
Best Books of 1955 on Vocational Guidance.....	Robert Hoppock.....161
American Doctoral Dissertations on Secondary Education in Foreign Countries.....	W. C. Eells.....166
The Daily Schedule in Junior High Schools.....	Ellsworth Tompkins.....176
The Book Column.....222
News Notes.....303

The Unique Features of Our American Schools

JAMES BRYANT CONANT

I RATHER feel as if I should be wearing a long white beard on this occasion since I seem to be cast in the role of a Rip Van Winkle. The last time I met with the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, the Commission was hardly more than starting a discussion of their plans for the future. And now tonight I find myself speaking at a dinner which marks the end of a glorious career of this same Commission. Measured by what the Commission has accomplished, I have been out of touch with educational matters for a very long time indeed! When I started a few days ago to catch up with events and list what has been done and consider the significance of each item, I was overcome with the magnitude of such a task.

In fact, I was reminded of the old story of the man who was sent into a house to make an inventory of the furnishings. He failed to return and after a few hours, friends entered the house in search of him. He was found "dead to the world" with an empty jug beside him and a notebook. In the notebook were two items: (1) One demijohn of whiskey; (2) One revolving rug.

But whether or not the educational world seems to be revolving before my eyes tonight, I shall make no attempt to produce an inventory of the results of the work of the Commission. Others have already handled this topic far better than can I, but I do want to take this opportunity of joining with the others in paying a tribute to Mr. Larsen. He will well remember more than one occasion when we discussed the possibilities of financing the National Citizens Commission with some representatives of the philanthropic foundations, he will remember how much skepticism was expressed about the scheme. It was even suggested that an organization of distinguished leaders of public opinion, themselves unacquainted with the field of education, might do more harm than good. The course of events has proved the contrary.

Not only has the National Citizens Commission succeeded in arousing public interest all through the United States and thereby promoting the welfare of the public schools, but the teachers, school administrators, and all professionally concerned with our schools have been more than satisfied

James Bryant Conant is Ambassador of the United States to the Federal Republic of Germany and was formerly President of Harvard University. This article was a speech given by Dr. Conant at the Citizens Assembly on Education held at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel in New York City, January 9, 1956.

with the results. It has been suggested that I had something to do personally with the initiation of this enterprise. I must admit that the original idea was mine and that I stubbornly and persistently talked about this idea to anyone who would listen. But ideas are a dime a dozen, and college presidents are noted for their stubbornness and even the repetitiousness of their remarks. What is usually lacking is someone who can take an idea and give it concrete form. This Roy Larsen did; and, without minimizing the valuable work of the other members of the Commission and Mr. Henry Toy, the effective Executive Secretary, it is not too much to say that Roy did it very largely through his own qualities of understanding and sympathetic leadership,—to which should be added the important fact that he was unstinting in the time and effort which he put into the undertaking.

Though I am no longer an educator, I think I may be permitted to speak on behalf of many, many teachers throughout the United States when I say to you, Roy, how much all who are concerned with the welfare of the public schools are in your debt!

But I have been admonished to speak tonight not about the past but about the future, and this assignment I accept gladly. For this is not one of those occasions which mark the termination of an enterprise. We are not gathered here to eulogize what has been done, but rather to praise the accomplishments of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools because it is only a start on a still greater undertaking; namely, the further awakening of public interest in the schools of the United States. I feel confident that neither Mr. Larsen nor the other members of the Commission are going to cease their efforts to support and improve the American schools. They are not going to cease their efforts to do all in their power to awaken still further the concern of the American citizens with the problems which they face in regard to the education of the oncoming generation.

In discussing the future, I think we may start with two premises. The first is that, because of an increasing citizen participation in public education, there will be increasing active discussion of the problems of the schools in every state, in every locality. In short, the momentum gathered by the Commission in the last five years will not be lost; on the contrary, it will be carried forward. The second premise is that at the top of the agenda in almost every discussion in every locality for the next five years or so will be a consideration of a set of problems none of us envisaged ten years ago when there was first talk of a national committee of distinguished citizens.

I refer, of course, to the set of problems generated by the unexpected increase in the birth rate which has continued, contrary to almost all prophecies since the late 1930's. As to these pressing problems and their magnitude, I propose to say but a few words here tonight. Having been absent from the country for the last three years, my knowledge of the details of these problems has been derived from occasional reading of articles and books which have been forwarded to me. I know from what

I have read of the White House Conference that there is a public awareness of the magnitude and the immediacy of these problems; I know there is a realization that no time can be lost in finding solutions unless American education is to suffer a severe retrogression.

Money must be found for an enormous program of building schools; money must be found for increasing salaries of teachers and school administrators. This means that the taxpayer in every state must be made to realize the dangers which we face as a nation if these finances are not forthcoming, and forthcoming in short order. This is largely a question of public education, using these words in the sense of informing public opinion. Because of what we know of the work of Mr. Larsen's Commission and what we have already heard tonight, I feel confident that within a relatively short time the necessary response from the country as a whole will be forthcoming.

Another set of questions which must be answered pertains to the present serious shortage of teachers and the even more alarming prognosis as to the increasing lack in the years ahead. Here we are concerned with matters which are, to a considerable degree, beyond the scope of an informed citizenry. These problems must be handled by the teaching profession itself, school administrators and, above all, the faculties of our universities and colleges. Statistics seem to show that what would have been the normal method of recruiting teachers and expanding the teaching profession will not suffice for the period immediately ahead. The startling and unexpected increase in the number of pupils presents all who are professionally concerned with our schools with a staggering situation. From what I have read, it would be my own guess that there is no single solution for the problem. A variety of new approaches must be sought.

Here tonight I would only venture to say a few words to my friends who are directly concerned with the public schools and with the training of school teachers, and say to them, "Be flexible and imaginative in your approach to these emergency problems. Even if some of the suggestions would in normal times be dangerous to the continued welfare of the teaching profession, the emergency is so great that radically new approaches must be explored. And I for one believe that in so doing you need have little anxiety that these new approaches will be so used by those who misunderstand American education as to undermine the achievements which have already been attained.

And, to all the members of the college faculties, particularly the members of the faculties of liberal arts, I would venture to repeat what I have said on more than one occasion; namely, "In the name of the welfare of American youth, call a truce to the warfare among educators." The time is long overdue for the professors of the liberal arts and of education to join forces and work together to solve the emergency problems and to improve our schools.

This reference to the disagreement among professors as to the content of a high-school course brings me at long last to the main topic of my

address. For I propose to take a few minutes of your time to underline what seems to me the unique features of our American schools, their shortcomings, as compared with the schools in European lands. And I venture to take your time to make a comparison of educational systems because I feel that, on every agenda in the next five years, in addition to those problems of first priority, there will be a fundamental topic for continual discussion. This topic is essentially the following: "Are the American schools doing the best job that they can? Are they serving the nation to the best advantage and in accordance with our American concepts of liberty and democracy? On the one hand, are our schools providing that type of general education which we believe essential for an informed and enlightened electorate and, on the other, are we discovering and educating to the full the latent talent in each generation?"

In every locality where groups of citizens or groups of educators attempt to answer such questions, I suggest that the words of President Killian of M.I.T. before the White House Conference should be borne in mind. He spoke of those errors commonly made in discussing school goals. *First*, the temptation to think that a program good for one's own community must be good for all communities. *Second*, the tendency to think in terms of one's own son in planning curricula. *Third*, to grow so interested in some one aspect of education as to forget the importance of a balanced program. "Too many college professors," he remarks, "think of the high school only in terms of its responsibility to prepare students to do well in the freshman subjects taught by them."

My experience in Germany in the last three years has enabled me from time to time to make an interesting comparison of American schools on the one hand and the European schools on the other. Indeed, in my role as Ambassador, I find that I cannot escape from a consideration of education! In my function as a representative of the American people, I have the obligation to promote understanding between the German people and the American nation. In so doing I find misapprehension about our schools and colleges and universities one of the blocks to understanding, one of the misapprehensions which I must seek to overcome. On the other hand, because of the presence of so many American families in Germany in connection with presence of our troops, no longer occupation troops, of course, but invited troops, defending Europe as members of NATO,—in connection with the presence of these troops, there are many American children being educated in Germany in American schools—over 30,000 in fact. Nearly 100 such schools are conducted by the Army and Air Force on typical American lines, as they must be since the children will, after a few years, return to the United States for their further education. As an illustration of my exposure to European and American education, I may mention the fact that my last talk on education was to a group of German school-teachers in Berlin, and my next speaking assignment is to an American PTA in Heidelberg!

The German schools are typical of the schools of the free nations of the continent. If time permitted, I would speak of the schools on the other side of the Iron Curtain, but that is a grim story of a totalitarian state using the schools for purposes completely alien to our concepts of freedom and individual integrity. If we are inclined to envy at times their output of scientists and engineers, let us be under no illusions as to how this output is attained nor any misapprehension as to the indoctrination in Marxism-Leninism which is the Soviet substitute for a liberal education.

When we turn to the free nations of Europe, however, we find the basic philosophy is essentially our own and yet, as many of you know, their methods of educating their youth are by no means ours. In fact, I think it is useful to regard the development of American education in the last seventy-five years as a mutation of the European tradition, a mutation brought about by the special history of the United States. In attempting to explain American education to Europeans, I often sum it up by saying that our schools must be regarded to a large degree as instruments by which we seek to come nearer to the goals of our society, equality of opportunity for all children, and equality of respect for all forms of honest labor. Under the influence of these ideals, through the expansion of our state-supported universities and the persistence of our four-year colleges, we have in the United States in the last fifty years greatly increased the percentage of our youth who are attending college and, as a consequence, enormously increased the full-time enrollment in our high schools.

With us, as you are well aware, three fourths of the 16-year-olds are going to school. In no European land is the figure more than ten or fifteen per cent. And right at this point I might mention a matter of terminology which illuminates the difference between the European and American concepts more than table upon table of accurate statistics.

In a large book devoted to European schooling, the percentage of each age group who are attending school is shown graphically, but no distinction is made between those who attend a school four hours a week supplementary to their apprentice work in factories, and those who go five days a week for many hours in order to prepare themselves for entrance to a university. Indeed, there is no German word for full-time education; the best that can be done is a literal translation of the English phrase.

More than one European would probably say, "Essentially all our youth attend school until they are seventeen or eighteen years old. But for the vast majority, ninety per cent or so, who are going to be farmers or workers in various forms of industry, or even shopkeepers on a small scale, a few hours of schooling a week is ample. There is no need of sending these young people to school to the exclusion of other work after they are thirteen or fourteen years of age. But as to those who are going to be the members of our learned professions, that is a different story! They must be started on a long and rigorous training at the age of ten or eleven; and this training will require so much of their time and effort that they must not

only go to school five days a week but also have many long hours of home-work in the afternoons and evenings."

This selection of one group, ten per cent of those in the elementary schools who are separated from the others and are sent to what are essentially university preparatory schools, is a characteristic of European education. The contrast with the American system needs no underlining before this audience, I am sure. Nor need I comment on the sociological implications of such an early separation of those who are to be educated from those who are to be trained. What is often not recognized in comments on European education is the fact that only this group of ten per cent or so receive the kind of education which is essential for those who are to be *professionally competent* in this modern world.

For the European youth who starts at age ten or eleven in his long journey towards the university, and of whom about half will become in fact university students, the instruction is far more rigorous, the work far harder than we can imagine here in the United States—harder in terms of hours put in, harder in terms of subjects studied, and more rigorous in terms of accomplishments demanded. One might well say of this small group that, when they enter a university, they have two to three times as much knowledge and acquired skills as the best college entrants in the United States. These students will have a command of at least two languages and perhaps three, including Latin or Greek. They will have studied mathematics well into the calculus, and they will have learned by heart an enormous amount of factual information in regard to the history of Europe and the literature of their own land. These are the students whose preparation for a university would delight the heart of every professor of the liberal arts and sciences in the United States.

But let us look at the other side of the picture; of the other ninety per cent—few if any will have studied any foreign language, few if any will have studied mathematics beyond the simple algebra, few if any will have been exposed to the type of studies which we consider so important for the development of an understanding of our government and the rights and duties of a citizen in a democracy. They will have learned by heart a great deal of historical information and they will, after age fourteen, through their apprenticeship in many factories, be well on their way to being workers whose skill can be envied by craftsmen of any land.

Because so much depends on the selection at age ten or eleven, the pressure on the pupils in the elementary schools in Europe is far greater than in the United States. To be sure, a majority of families probably have no ambition for even the brightest of their offspring to be transferred to the university preparatory group, but there are a sufficient number of other parents who desire the advantages of a university preparatory education. And, since the teacher primarily determines the selection, the quantity of the work done in the first four to six years is great by American standards. Above all, the parental pressure exists to a degree quite incomprehensible to Americans. This statement I make on the basis of an on-the-spot com-

parison between the American schools as they operate in Germany and the German schools that stand close by. This parental pressure is combined with an assumption on the part of each pupil that he or she is in school to master the subjects presented by the teacher whether the student likes it or not. And this pressure is doubly strong in schools for the selected few preparing for a university.

Now let me make it plain that, in making this comparison between the European scheme of education and our own, I am not for a moment suggesting that the European nations should accept our pattern. And I am certainly not advising that we should revert seventy-five years to the European tradition. I use the word "revert" advisedly, for I think it fair to say that, in the closing quarter of the nineteenth century, our college preparatory schools, whether they were supported by public money or private means, were very similar to the university preparatory schools in Europe. I may mention the fact that I went to one such school whose history goes back 300 years; I studied three foreign languages, though I am afraid not with the intensity and certainly not with the results alas of my European contemporaries!

Let me further make it plain that I am not advocating a return to the type of high-school curriculum which was appropriate fifty years ago when less than ten per cent of our youth attended a high school and when less than five per cent entered a college or university. I, for one, believe that we must continue to hold fast to the ideal of providing an education full-time for *all*, and I underline *all*, American youth.

Furthermore, that our education in the schools should be connected to a system of colleges and universities by which as much as a third of the youth enter these colleges and universities; that there continues to be such a variety of subjects offered that there is the room for development, through full-time education up to the age of twenty or twenty-one, of a great variety of talents and interests; and, above all, that we keep the present flexible arrangement by which a boy or girl can postpone the decision as to whether or not he or she goes on with education beyond the high school until the closing years of his or her high-school course.

"But does this mean," some may ask, "that we cannot hope to educate a considerable number of our youth so that they, like their European contemporaries, have mastery of a foreign language, a greater mastery of mathematics than at present, a more detailed and greater grasp of factual material than provided by most of our public or private schools?" My answer would be, "No. I am by no means a defeatist. We can greatly improve our education in our schools along lines similar to those considered conventional by Europeans, *provided* we do this primarily on a selective basis." In 1950 the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association published a pamphlet entitled *Education of the Gifted*. In the foreword it was stated, "Acquaintance with present educational practices has convinced the Commission the gifted members of the total school population constitute a minority which is too largely neglected." It would

be out of place for me to detail the recommendations of this report to-night, though I am tempted to do so, because I was one of the authors. The point I wish to make is that I believe it is possible for our schools to do far more for children with special gifts and talents than at present, without jeopardizing our basic educational philosophy.

To me it is unthinkable that we should give up the common American practice of having in one school boys and girls with different talents and different interests. I am convinced the comprehensive high school is an excellent American invention. It is unthinkable to me that we should attempt to impose upon a large portion of our youth of the high-school age a four to six-year curriculum centered around foreign languages and mathematics. This would mean eliminating a consideration of many topics which not only professional educators but also the American public at large are convinced are essential elements in the instruction of future voters—elements which are essential in developing responsible citizens of a free society. But over and above that, the equivalent of the European parental pressure simply does not exist.

Consider, for example, the study of foreign languages. How many American families, even in the higher income brackets, would co-operate with teachers who were attempting to force students with little linguistic aptitude through the type of stiff course of the instruction characteristic of the European university preparatory schools? It is true that lack of native ability may, to a considerable degree, be compensated for by diligent study; but the diligent study of uncongenial subjects without any clear-cut realization of the goals to be achieved—that is something that is unlikely to be realized in the United States.

The parental demand for a thorough European-type of education hardly exists in this country, even among the five per cent of the population whose sons and daughters in other countries would be forced willynilly to study what they were told to and not necessarily what they liked. And the American public high school, as well as in the private college preparatory school, the attitude of the student is not conducive to taking on hard tasks of book learning because some teacher or group of teachers say it is important. Americans sons and daughters, unlike their European counterparts, have learned at a young age to ask and demand a rational answer to the question, "Why should I do that?"

Occasionally I have heard proposals for stiffening up the American high-school courses, proposals which are so extreme that they could only be made a reality if one were going to undertake the reform of the American way of bringing up children. And those who wish to undertake any such reform, with all the social and political consequences that would follow from it, are welcome to the task!

I have spoken of the study of foreign languages; let me take another illustration which to some will seem to have a more immediate connection with the welfare of the United States. There has been an increasing concern in recent years with our failure in America to educate a sufficient

number of scientists and engineers—that is to say, a number sufficient to man adequately our industries and our national defense establishments. The colleges blame the schools for inadequate preparation, particularly in mathematics, and the schools blame the taxpayers for not providing sufficient funds to pay for first-rate teachers of science and mathematics, to my way of thinking, and the problem of recruiting teachers of science and mathematics is today doubly acute. Furthermore, it may well be that greater emphasis should be placed on the study of algebra for all our youth but, as in the case of the study of foreign languages, I do not believe that many American families would support an effort to force high-school students in large numbers into the study of geometry and trigonometry, let alone the calculus. Too many fathers and mothers would be inclined to say "Why should Johnny have to continue with mathematics, which is so hard for him. After all, we don't want him to be an Einstein!"

To my mind, the way out of this educational quandary lies in identifying scholastic talent young and then providing for teachers who will stimulate the selected students to do their utmost because they want to and as a matter of pride. The colleges should be ready to accept these selected students on such basis that their unusual high-school accomplishments would be recognized. The substitute for the European pressures from the family and from the accepted *mores* of a European society must be found in America by the early discovery of talent and its stimulation. The difficulty with the study of mathematics in our schools, for example, is in no small part due to our failure to identify at a relatively young age those pupils who have more than the average talent for mathematics. If such pupils were identified (and tests for this purpose seem to be at hand) and then were stimulated to proceed rapidly with their studies, a respectable fraction of the incoming freshmen of our better colleges would have sufficient mathematical aptitude to tackle the first-year physics and chemistry courses with both enthusiasm and success. At present, a large number of college students, who in high school had the ambition to be scientists, drop out of the scientific field once they run into the difficulties of college physics, chemistry, and mathematics.

I have spoken of appealing to the pride of selected students. To some degree this can be stimulated by the spirit of competition which is not something to be deplored if kept in bounds by a spirit of fair play; it is a healthy aspect of our American emphasis on sports. There is no reason why the same type of motivation could not be utilized in the study of mathematics and foreign languages, provided, as in athletics, selection of the naturally talented is accepted as a matter of course, and provided that public opinion becomes convinced of the importance of the undertaking. Here is another task for citizens committees. Local enthusiasm must be aroused for discovering these students in each community.

May I remind you how musical talent is now regarded in the United States. No one expects any large numbers of school children to learn to play a musical instrument, but nearly everyone would like to have the

musically gifted encouraged to develop their skills. Our attitude toward music might well serve as a pattern as to the attitude which we Americans should take in regard to the education of our youth whose native ability lies in the fields of words and numbers. In short, identification of talent, motivation through aroused interest and competition should enable our schools to utilize much more than now the rich resources of talent in each generation.

Let me make it plain that what I have just suggested can be accomplished, I believe, by modifications in our educational practices so slight that they will not jeopardize the essence of the American tradition. We need not retreat one step from our goal of providing education for all (and I mean all) American youth. Equality of opportunity for all children and equality of respect among all educational groups are two doctrines that are as significant for our future as for our past. These are fundamental premises of American education. Every citizen needs to realize how he differs from the premises in other lands. He will then see how our American educational philosophy differs from the European and reflects the special nature of our own free society. He will be then more ready to support, in every possible way, the further development and improvement of our American schools. If one understands why and how these schools differ from those of other free societies, one will be more ready to support them and make the sacrifices that are required to improve them, even at a time when they face the staggering problems presented by the drastic up-swing in the size of our population.

So I end as I began by saluting Mr. Larsen and the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, saluting them for the stimulus they have given to public thinking about our public schools. We now turn with interest and enthusiasm to the work of the successor organization. All power to them! Of one thing the members may be sure: To the extent their efforts contribute to an improvement of American education, they will be contributing not only to the welfare of the United States but, because of America's role today in the international situation, they will also be strengthening the cause of freedom throughout the world.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

The 41st Annual Convention
of the
National Association of Secondary-School Principals
will be held in Washington, D. C.
February 23-27, 1957

Educational Statesmanship As a Principal Sees It

HOWARD G. SPALDING

A STATESMAN is one skilled in the science of government, a political leader of distinguished ability. An educational statesman, then, is one skilled in the science of education, an educational leader of distinguished ability—one endowed with exceptional vision, ability, and wisdom whose devotion to the cause of education transcends his personal concerns or preoccupations.

In this definition there is no reference to the scope or nature of the educational statesman's responsibilities. An educational statesman may be one who deals with problems affecting the lives of tens of thousands of people. But he also may be one who administers a small school supremely well. All of us can qualify as educational statesmen if we render a sufficiently high order of service in whatever position we may occupy.

Ours is a respected profession and we are members of a goodly company. In our association and in similar associations throughout our nation, you will find many men of high character and competence, men who are uncommonly devoted to the public welfare, men of high professional ideals. And if you are to rise to the level of statesmanship, you must share with the best of them the ideals and standards and beliefs and convictions which ennoble our profession of schoolmastering. For you are by virtue of your position charged with the responsibility of leadership, and your ability to influence those whom you lead depends upon the quality of your ideals and the sincerity with which you hold them. Your enthusiasm for learning and personal growth must burn so strongly that it will ignite a similar fire in others. Your constant faith in public education and your courage in its defense must provide reassurance for teachers, parents, and pupils in times of trial. Your conviction of the value of the work you are doing must supply the drive toward exceptional achievement that will energize you and those with whom you work.

Your belief in the value of your work will gain strength from two sources—your knowledge of what education does for the individual and what it does for society. Schools change individuals, though not easily, for human nature is an uncommonly intractable substance. But daily in your school you can, if you are observant, see this work of molding and reshaping lives

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go on. The timid youth gains confidence and the brash extrovert learns restraint. The silent one learns to speak and the handicapped learns to live successfully with his affliction. The self-centered individualist learns co-operation and gains a measure of altruism. The gifted is speeded toward a goal of high achievement and the less talented is helped along the way to a more modest success. In these and in a thousand other ways, sometimes subtly, at times dramatically your school gives your boys and girls the power to do, the urge to create, and the will to serve. You witness these changes and your sense of the value of what you and your colleagues are doing deepens until no other work seems quite so worth while.

Then you look at our dynamic, complicated, fascinating society and you see evidence there of the power of education. Our vast and complex technology is undergirded with education—from the simple arithmetic of the clerk and artisan to the abstruse formulas of the scientist and the engineer. Every effort of government depends for its success upon the loyalty and understanding of our citizens for which our schools, more than any other single agency, are responsible. The cultural life of our nation reflects in a multitude of ways the teachings of our schools. The more thoughtfully you observe our society, the more clearly you will see that education is the most important single factor in creating a good society. You will reflect upon the kind of society ours might, in a few generations, become if all young people could have all of the opportunities for education that might be profitable for them. And as you grow older in the profession, you will believe more deeply in the social worth of what you are doing.

The leader who achieves the level of the statesman must have a strong belief in the cause to which he devotes his life. He must also have a vision of better things and a plan for their achievement. Complacency is the besetting sin of our schools. It is so easy to do the accustomed thing, so comfortable to maintain the *status quo*. The spur of competition and the crises of events which compel change in other fields of endeavor are largely inoperative in our schools. Even public demand for improvement, which should be urgent and powerful, is often feeble and frequently misdirected. If you are to be a leader who will become a statesman, you must resist at all costs the temptation to be content with mediocrity and merely to perpetuate the habitual. You must learn the truth of the adage that "The price of progress is trouble." You must have the courage always to see the better way, the higher goal.

In stressing this point, may I make it clear that I fully share with you pride in what our schools have accomplished during the past hundred years. I believe, as you do, that our public schools are the best investment our people make. I am convinced, as I know you are, that our schools are doing a better job today than they ever have in the past. However, measured against the need for education and the possibilities for their further improvement, our schools are today inadequate and defective to a dangerous degree. And unless a far greater educational effort is made, the

disparity between achievement and need will become much greater than it is at present.

What, in broad outline quickly sketched, are some of the statesmanlike things you can do to make our schools better?

You can learn to work more effectively with citizens interested in improving education. In the ultimate analysis there is but one source of strength for our public schools. That is found in the will of our people to be educated. If that will is strong, our schools will flourish. If it is weak, they will wither. In our tremendously productive society it is absurd to contend that money cannot be found to meet every need of the schools. That point is well made in a recent report of the Fund for Advancement of Education which says, "Given a reorientation (of our schools) in which the public can have confidence, the needed resources will inevitably flow. They are small indeed as compared with the vast and increasing productivity of the American economy. No citizen would suffer any material hardship nor indeed would he be aware of any personal sacrifice." Yet, where the will to be educated is feeble, the contention that we cannot afford adequate education will often be heard and heeded.

Knowing these obvious facts, you will build a strong Parent Teacher Association in your school. You will see that the people of your community are kept well informed about the achievements and the needs of your school. You will welcome opportunities to speak and to write about education. You will work with all civic groups that are interested in the schools. You will seek the help of laymen in solving your problems, even as we are today seeking such help from leaders in business, industry, and journalism. In all of these efforts you will be guided by the words of Thomas Jefferson, "A leader in a democracy must inform the people and be responsive to their will." You will proceed in the belief that, given the facts, the people will reach wise conclusions.

Important as such personal action is, you will realize that many advances in our schools can only be brought about through the organized and united effort of our profession. Let us consider a single example to illustrate this fact.

One of the most important single problems confronting us today as a profession is that of finding ways for improving our schools faster. New curriculum materials need to be developed. New methods need to be invented and tested. A vast amount of research and development work needs to be done.

In 1953 private industry and the Federal government spent \$2,720,000,000 on research and development of new materials and processes. The total annual expenditure for these purposes is increasing rapidly. These expenditures, made year after year in huge amounts, are largely responsible for spectacular changes in business and industry and equally changes in our ways of living. As a single modest example of such change consider the fact that ninety per cent of the prescriptions now being filled in our drug stores contain drugs which were not commercially available ten years

ago. Such examples of the results of technological change might be multiplied almost indefinitely.

What a pitiful contrast do we find in education! The total annual expenditure for educational research and development by all of the foundations, universities, Federal agencies, and our state and local public school systems is certainly less than one week's cost of industrial research. If education is to advance as it needs to, we must have a comprehensive, well-financed program of research and development in education.

For the past twenty years and more, our National Association of Secondary-School Principals has done more than any other single group to develop a program of secondary education suited to the needs of our times. The Committee on Orientation of Secondary Education in the thirties and the Committee on the Imperative Needs of Youth in the forties made important contributions to change in our secondary schools. The recently established Foundation for the Advancement of Secondary Education holds promise for an even greater contribution in the future. The committees of our own New York association are doing effective work toward the same end. These are statesmanlike efforts. They deserve your full support. They need to be vastly increased if they are to be maximally effective. We need to build far stronger state and national professional associations which can themselves do more of the work of research and development that needs to be done and, even more important, bring a strong influence to bear in the state and nation to see that this need is met by foundations, universities, legislatures, and the Federal government. You can help in this effort by being an active, working, influential member of your district, state, and national principals associations. There is a good deal of work to be done in building up the power of these organizations.

If you are to reach the stature of the statesman, if you are to be an effective leader, you will need to be a student of the art of leadership, an art about which we all know too little and practice all too imperfectly. You will need to study the motives that impel people, and especially school people, to constructive action. Here you may fall into error. The clamor for better salaries which has been necessary for many years and which, alas, may be necessary for many more, has caused many people to believe that exceptional service can be purchased merely by adding dollars to the paycheck. In the sense that a higher level of compensation will attract better people to the profession will give our profession dignity and status and will free those already in it from the limitations of poverty this is true. But it is not true that personal gain ranks highest among the motives that lead competent people to render exceptional service in business and industry or in our schools. Desire to serve others, pride in one's professional skill, the satisfaction that comes from developing new programs and from seeing pupils grow better as a result of them, desire for the approval of one's superiors, colleagues, and the public—these are some of the motives which cause competent school people to render service over and above the call of duty. These are the motives to which you must appeal.

In studying the art of leadership, you will also need to study the techniques of leadership—how to organize groups for most effective action, how to guide the work of such groups without restricting their initiative, how to obtain acceptance for new ideas and, perhaps equally important and even more difficult, how to get people to abandon the old ways so that the new may be tried. You will find help in developing your skill in leadership in some of the excellent books on personnel management in business and industry that have appeared in the last ten years.

If you are to grow as a leader, you will need to see clearly just what your field of expertness should be. You will be working with people who, as specialists, possess expertness in the various fields of instruction and guidance. You should defer to their expertness in those fields, insisting only that they be experts in fact as well as in name. Your field of expertness is in the determination of the purposes toward which the work of your school should be directed, the values that should be sought, and the methods by which these purposes and values can best be achieved. You are responsible for guiding the development of your school in all of its ramifications, for maintaining a proper balance between departments and kinds of activity, for discovering new needs and for seeing that they are met, and for discontinuing unproductive efforts, and abandoning ineffective methods.

There are few professions that make greater intellectual demands or that require more kinds of ability of a high order than the high-school principalship. If you are to develop expertness of the kinds I have mentioned, you will need to keep informed about the work of groups doing fundamental educational planning. You will need to read widely as a student of individual behavior and of our society and its needs. You will also need to keep informed about events and developments in every field of instruction in your school so you can deal intelligently with those who are experts in these fields. You will need to work hard at the job of providing your staff and your pupils with the example of a person who is intellectually alive and growing. If you do all of these things and keep on doing them throughout your professional life, you may eventually qualify as a statesman.

As examples of the kind of thinking you will need to do in guiding the development of your school, let us look quickly at three changes that are occurring in our society and see what they mean to our schools.

A hundred years ago as the industrial age was dawning, John Ruskin wrote two truly prophetic sentences. "I could smile when I see the hopeful exultation of many at the new reach of wordly science and vigor of wordly effort as if we were again at the beginning of days. There is thunder on the horizon as well as dawn."

We have heard the thunder to which he referred in two world wars, in the crash of atomic bombs, in the clash of ideologies. We realize that today we live in a dangerous world, a far more dangerous world than at any time in the past. It is a world in which ignorance anywhere is a threat to us, a world in which political turmoil anywhere may involve us, a

world which in the interests of our own safety and survival we must help to civilize, to educate, and to guide. Yet the apathy of our citizens at every election and the ignorance of our people revealed by public opinion polls warn us that we are not successful enough in preparing our citizens to cope with the social and political problems of this dangerous time.

The meaning of these facts for our schools seems clear. We must find far better ways for developing social understanding and social concern. Courses in civics and history as we have known them are not enough. They must possess greater depth and timeliness so that pupils will learn not only what happened but also why it happened and what the meaning of events is to them. Participation in extracurricular activities, valuable as it is as an educational method, is not enough. We must go beyond both and confront our pupils with the problems of our communities, our state, and our nation and give them many opportunities for studying these problems and, where possible, working on them in a realistic way, teaching them the methods and techniques of democratic social action as we do so. Into this work we must infuse a sense of its importance and urgency so our pupils will feel a strong sense of obligation to be active, alert, participating members of society. The Citizenship Education Project, started by President Eisenhower, is a good beginning in this direction and deserves far more attention in New York State than it has received.

Another evident change in our society already well advanced is found in the growing complexity and increasing tempo of our life. We are rapidly becoming almost totally urbanized. Today in New York State less than fifteen per cent of our people live on farms and even they are increasingly under the influence of the city. With urbanization comes loss of privacy, loss of individuality, the intrusion of mass media of communication upon every waking hour, and an ever-increasing emphasis upon material well being. We seem to be becoming far more conscious of our standard of living than of the quality of our living. The two are not the same. Increasingly our young people will have to seek happiness and contentment in an urban environment—millions of them in an urban environment of varying degrees of poverty and squalor.

I may see a problem that does not exist. But it seems to me that there is ample evidence to indicate that it is much more difficult for our young people to develop sound life purposes and true standards of value today in an urban environment than elsewhere. Whether in city or country, however, all of our young people need to learn how to seek the durable satisfactions of life.

There is an old Chinese proverb which says, "Of the wants of men there is no end, but the things that bring content are few and well known." Throughout the years our schools have taught our people what to want materially, and how to get it. In this way they have been ably abetted by advertising, on which \$8,200,000,000 was spent last year—more than our total bill for public education on all levels. As a result of this emphasis upon material wants in school and out, we have gained much that is good,

but also much that is bad. Busy divorce courts and full jails testify that material prosperity alone cannot bring happiness. Is it not time for us to be as much concerned with teaching our young people to be good as with teaching them to be smart? Is it not time to redouble our efforts to teach moral and ethical principles and standards of value so that our young people, rich in inner resources and with sound life purposes, may live lives useful to their fellows and satisfying to themselves?

A third obvious change that has occurred during the past generation and that will proceed even more rapidly during the rest of your lifetime is found in the increase of leisure—except, perhaps, for high-school principals. What does this increase in leisure for the masses of our people mean for the schools? Clearly it means that our high schools will need to spend less time in teaching our young people how to make a living. This task will increasingly be assumed by junior colleges, technical schools, colleges, and by business and industry in training courses for specific jobs. Our high schools will need to spend more time on developing a program of general education that will make life more worth living for those who receive it.

Every pupil in our schools has some kind of creative ability—usually a great many kinds. It is in the development of these abilities that the key to the better use of leisure is found. We have done a superb job of identifying young people with musical talent and in giving them opportunities to develop their talent. We are beginning to do the same in art. The sale of art supplies has multiplied more than six fold in the last ten years as more and more Sunday painters, products of our schools, have found enjoyment in developing their artistic talents. The editorial offices of our magazines are deluged with manuscripts produced by hundreds of thousands of aspiring writers. The sale of machinery for home workshops has been booming for several years. These are hopeful signs. What an America we could have, what an American culture we might develop, if all of our schools could give all of our young people all of the opportunity they require for finding their creative talents and for developing them to the full!

I have mentioned these three examples of changes in our society and a few of the resulting changes that are required in our schools merely to suggest, in a very sketchy way, the kind of thinking that you will need to do if you are to become an expert in educational purposes and values. To work out in detail any one of these changes is a long and difficult process, as you well know. If you are to do such work well, you will need to read widely, to observe keenly, and to think deeply about what kind of society we have and how the schools can help young people to live better in that society.

Time does not permit me to follow this line of thought further and I must close. In his delightful book of reminiscences, *American Memoir*, Henry Seidal Canby writes of the teachers he had known. These he classifies as the hard-boiled, the indifferent, the idealistic, the factual, and

the enthusiastic. Of the idealistic he wrote, "Such a bull-headed generation I have never known in any other profession, for daily they went out to fight for their ideas and daily they were defeated. And yet, stupid as some of them were and blind as to what was going on as were most, I cannot but feel that they were the only realists in the college of my day. Obstinate determined to make what they thought was truth prevail, they alone intuitively saw college education for what it essentially was—a battle with the natural cussedness, consistent shortsightedness, and obstinate resistance of the human animal to whatever uncomfortably raises him above the level of the brute. They were on the right side of education even when they were absurdly wrong in their estimates of what their young animals needed. They were on the only side that really wanted a victory."

Substitute "high school" for "college" and "principal" for "teacher" and you will have a good characterization of yourself if you are one of those idealists to whom the work of the public schools has a deep appeal. If it does have that appeal, you will do your work each day confident that you are adding something of value to the lives of your pupils. You will know that your influence has its effect in moving society a little further upward along the rugged path of progress. And in the end you will deserve, in some measure, a tribute similar to that spoken by Pericles of the Athenian heroes, "Their story is not graven only on stones over their native earth, but lives on far away without visible symbol, woven into the stuff of other men's lives."

CONFERENCE FOR PRINCIPALS

A CONFERENCE on "Problems of the Principalship" will be held at the University of Chicago, July 9-11, 1956. Sponsored jointly by the Midwest Administration Center and the university's Department of Education, the conference is designed primarily for elementary- and secondary-school principals and key teachers on their staffs. During the three-day period, the discussions and addresses will focus on the improvement of faculty morale and effectiveness, organization of schools for effective instruction, and the adjustment of schools to the needs of a changing society.

Representatives of national and state association of elementary- and secondary-school principals assisted in planning the conference. Its purpose is to identify the most pressing problems facing the practicing administrators of elementary and secondary schools and to bring to bear on their problems the most promising contributions in current thought and research findings which may aid in their solution. More detailed information may be obtained by writing H. T. James, Assistant Director, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

Educational Statesmanship As a Superintendent Sees It

HOWARD SEYMOUR

A VISITOR to a small town in Vermont drew up alongside a country store, in front of which were several discarded school benches. He got out of his car to sit down beside the one local inhabitant seated there. "Nice weather up these hills." The old man neither looked up nor answered. The visitor made another try. "How many people live here?" The Vermonter just looked out at the hills. In some desperation the visitor said: "You fellows up here don't believe in talking, do you?" The old gentleman finally looked around at him and replied: "Up here before we open our mouths, we make sure that what we have to say is better than silence." I am not sure that what I have to say upon this difficult subject of "*Educational Statesmanship*" is any better than silence.

Certainly statesmanship is much more easily recognized, observed, and admired than analyzed and described. As a matter of fact, it is revealed only in the actions of people; it does not exist in the abstract. This is the approach in my presentation—emphasis upon the person behind the statesmanlike act.

What personalities do we think of when we use the term *statesmanship*? Could anyone leave out such names as Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Herbert Hoover, Woodrow Wilson, or Winston Churchill—all illustrations in the field of government? How could we avoid the mention of Carnegie, Rockefeller, and Mellon, if we were to limit ourselves to industrial leaders? The roster of educational statesmen is a long one. We should want to include Judd, Cubberly, Terman, Briggs, Conant, Jerry Stoddard, among others, although it must be recognized that such a listing depends, to a large extent, upon the section of the country from which one comes or the University in which one is trained. In this state we should want to mention Howard Pillsbury, William McAndrew, Herbert Seeley Weet, and Harry Linton, among others. All of these men, whether in government, industry, or education, showed unusual wisdom in analyzing situations, in developing ideas, in shaping policy, in directing men, and in accomplishing results. All of them clung to a course of action with zeal and fortitude.

But by no stretch of the imagination is educational statesmanship confined to those few who by superb deed and wise thought have had wide acceptance. I venture to say that almost every school or school district in

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this state can point with pride to at least one educational statesman somewhere in its history who in the small circle of the immediate community gave devoted service.

The term *statesman* implies a broader view—one who does not ignore the individual human being, but who sees beyond the individual human to *all those* within the *state*. He is concerned with people, but *all* the people; and is so wise in making his decisions that he can serve all without sacrificing any. He believes in the greatest good for the greatest number, and acts in a way that does not offend the minorities. The *educational statesman* is the educational leader who believes and acts and leads in this way. He sees discerningly the consequences of his acts and decisions upon all who are affected; he is concerned with the broad view of education; and he never violates the rights or sensibilities of the individual.

In part, educational statesmanship is the result of what the person is and, in part, it is the result of what the person does. Yet what a person does is dependent upon what that person is.

A truly great leader must possess integrity. He must be ominently fair. He must deal with his fellowmen not only with understanding but also with compassion. His strength of purpose must be firm. He must be fearless in the courage of his convictions. He requires keen and perceptive judgment, and the personal magnetism to draw others to him. A sense of humor is almost indispensable. These personal, social characteristics are basic; knowledge and intelligence, so indispensable to the statesman, are of little value without them. Let us examine the following five points, which are important in determining the know-how and competence of schools leaders.

1. An educational statesman will subscribe to certain fundamental principles for himself and for his school system. Frequently members of our profession merely bow to such phrases as "equality of opportunity" and "the unique worth of every individual," without understanding how basic these concepts are in a democracy and how zealously we must all hold to them day in and day out if we work in public education.

The principal of one school evaluated a few years ago in describing his philosophy and point of view to a few of us said: "Yes, I believe in equality of opportunity, but not necessarily in my school; let those who wish the commercial course enter a commercial high school, those who are interested in trade education go somewhere else." This statement was made with the full knowledge that no such other school existed in his community.

Occasionally we let our prejudices close our minds to the fact that all the children of all the people must be served, regardless of their particular abilities, regardless of their economic resources, regardless of their varied backgrounds. How easy it is for us, because of our ancestry, our college background, and our nostalgia for what it has meant to us, to glorify our collegiate education and unconsciously perhaps disparage other educational sequences!

In a similar way we have been saturated with all kinds of precepts about democratic leadership. There is plenty of evidence to indicate that, when the leader acts so as to promote friendliness, understanding, and warmth, when human welfare is paramount, when government is based upon common consent, common agreement, and common action; then production is up, group morale highest, and direction most loyally supported. The educational statesman knows what he believes and he demonstrates what he knows. He lives by a creed. It is not a ritual that he repeats mechanically day by day, soon to lose its meaning; but a living philosophy, which permeates his daily actions.

I frequently ask my students in a course on "*Educational Administration*" at our very first class period, to write out what each believes about instruction, the curriculum, guidance, the role of the principal, *etc.* and I like to end with this question: "What do you believe is the most important thing for a young person to learn?" The answers tell me something about the background and point of view held by each student.

Sometimes the statement of what a person says he believes is surprising. A southern Baptist minister, preparing a reformed Methodist for baptism by total immersion, instructed him to shout "I believe" each time he came up for air. On Sunday, after the immersion chamber was rolled out from underneath the altar and the faithful parishioner made ready, he was dropped into it. One of the deacons with a powerful lunge drove him to the bottom. Just as the man started to come up for air, the deacon thrust him down again. Once more he tried to remain on top, remembering his instructions, but without success. The minister, unable to see the immersion very well and somewhat irritated by the failure of the probationer to follow instructions, cried out, "Sinner, what do you believe?" and the sinner, rising for the third time, holding on to the deacon for dear life, spitting water from his nose and mouth, roared back: "I believe, I believe, all right, I believe you stinkers are trying to drown me." Yes, what a man really believes is important.

2. An educational statesman possesses the fine art of effecting necessary compromises without sacrificing principles, long-range plans, and ultimate goals. He has that rare innate ability of knowing when to defer action until the propitious moment. He senses when to postpone immediate gains for later, more permanent ones. An illustration of this is the principal's sense of timing regarding bond issues for new schools, or increases in the budget for teachers' salaries. He stresses not how much these will cost but rather whether the citizens of his community can afford *not* to provide needed facilities and the right kind of teachers. Of course he does not operate upon a platform of expediency. When he loses out on a much desired and highly warranted goal, he assures his constituents with a smile that he will be back again with a similar project at some future time.

3. The educational statesman understands how to utilize the services of others. He influences people to do what is above and beyond what they

would have done had they not been in contact with him. He draws around him helpers who are capable. He is not worried that they may even know more than he about certain activities. On the tombstone of no less a man than Andrew Carnegie is the inscription: "Here lies one who knew how to get around him men who were cleverer than himself."

The competent leader delegates authority to his associates and assigns the necessary responsibility that accompanies it. He believes in group discussion of issues and problems. He knows that, on the average, decisions reached by appropriate representatives are better than those made by one man. He possesses that rare asset of being able to take criticism graciously, of knowing how to accept defeat for his own proposals. He makes every program "our program" rather than "my program." He gets people to modify their positions without taking offense. He is the kind of person who refuses to be stampeded in spite of opposition, when he believes he is right. He sticks to principles when it is important to stick, and throughout the entire process he remains calm, unruffled, judicial.

In dealing with his associates he knows when to be tough and when to let them down easily. He knows when to direct and when to counsel. He recognizes that very important maxim: "No man is unimportant to himself." He has deliberately made contact with people of all walks of life, with intent to understand them. He has that rare quality of making each person, in whatever station in life he may be, believe that *his* work is important, his contribution to society great.

4. In searching for the solution to a problem, the educational statesman applies scientific analysis. His training should have been such that he automatically asks himself and his assistants: "What are the facts; what was their origin; what are the alternatives; what is the best alternative and why?" But he is realistic enough to know that many solutions are the result of what those concerned *feel*, rather than what they know. He realizes that frequently decisions are influenced more by how individuals relate to one another than on the basis of the issues at stake. Yet he constantly seeks to test his conclusions by the yardstick of logic and reason.

How often have we heard this kind of analysis: "I don't believe in homogeneous grouping; it's undemocratic. I'm voting against it, and I know what I'm talking about. My own child suffered from such a system, when he was refused admission to a bright group; and he's just as bright as the rest of the children." What kind of reasoning is this?

How often we judge people by their external appearance! Some years ago I was asked to head a Middle States evaluation in a small community. While addressing the evaluating committee concerning their duties, I noticed a rather unkempt, sleepy looking elderly man in the front row. Instantly I came to the conclusion that some one had brought a broken-down retired educator in out of the storm to get warm. The experience taught me a real lesson about snap judgment *versus* scientific analysis; for this person was positively the most brilliant member of the committee. Appearances are sometimes deceiving.

5. The educational statesman is shrewd in anticipating the problems that schools are likely to encounter in the future, and he takes steps to meet them. It was said of John M. Brewer, one time professor of guidance at Harvard University, and said critically, that his book, *Educators and Guidance*, was twenty years ahead of its time. Today more and more we are recognizing, what he pointed out then, that guidance cannot be relegated to one or two specialists in the schools. It is now becoming an integral part of classroom instruction and of teacher-pupil relationship.

The educational statesman, with vision, analyzes every development in his community, tries to anticipate what will be required of education, and attempts to sell his proposals to the public. Take, for example, the trend toward two- and three-car families. Should we not have provided in the last decade instruction in auto driving for every youth sixteen years or over in school? I should suspect that most of us here anticipated the situation. Our program has lagged, not so much because of a lack of vision but because we couldn't find the money to finance the appropriate courses.

A second illustration is appropriate. Thousands of electronic controls and devices are already here, and our schools must meet the demand for workers with the types of skill required in the age of automation, as well as provide for workers temporarily displaced. Should not educators be concerned with the effect these inventions have upon mankind? Without discounting the heritage of the past, the educational statesman gears his curriculum to the future, not the preceding, demands of society.

How does one achieve the goal of educational statesmanship? Some would say that a person is born with this quality. I should say that one has certain inherent potentialities which, if properly nurtured, could produce action of statesmanlike quality. Much of what is necessary for dealing with people, for reaching solutions to problems, is acquired through a variety of experiences, together with expert direction and guidance. Leadership of any kind is not mastered through courses taken even at the best universities, although knowledge of the requisite practices and skills, and of desirable attitudes, is helpful. Training of this kind can be most effective when approached by the case study method. Observing, reading, and listening are important. But these are secondary to the values that can be derived from participating, deciding, evaluating.

What we need to do is to make expert analyses of the job the ideal educational statesman does and, by carefully controlled experiences, first determine how much growth a person has made and second how much still needs to be made. Analysis of carefully selected actual situations enables the observer to assess the person's ability to sort out the important from the unimportant, to time the administrative and organizational moves that must be made, to reveal with what depth each candidate has penetrated into all aspects of the problem, and to demonstrate what techniques can be utilized most effectively towards its solution. A real evaluation is needed of the person's ability to conduct a conference, to work in committee, to interview, to speak effectively, to write with conviction and

pungency, to carry on research, to do scientific thinking—all of these on a variety of educational subjects.

Maybe all of this adds up to a greater need for administrative internship and more extensive opportunity for those who could profit from it. Perhaps it would be desirable to select some educational statesmen throughout our country who are universally regarded as such, and to apprentice young men to them for a year or more to learn the methods by which they came to achieve their competence. This is the pattern in medicine, in government, and in the ministry. Such a program coupled with basic educational courses could increase the number of recognized leaders in the educational profession. We must prepare our boards of education to be ready to help subsidize internship programs, with complete understanding that the investment may not at the moment reap dividends for the area it serves. However, as such a program develops, the result is cumulative, until ultimately it should affect each and every community. Let us utilize our present potential to find ways of enlarging the supply of educational statesman.

Educational statesmanship is not something mysterious and illusive. May I repeat, it results from what the person is, what the person does, and how the two are inter-related. It is the sum of many characteristics, of many techniques, of many methods; all focused upon the solving of problems, and all subject to identification, improvement, and evaluation. Let us direct our efforts toward the goal, with these components in mind.

Let us also remind ourselves that educational statesmanship can be practiced and demonstrated in the smallest hamlet. Many will neither have the desire nor the health to seek high acclaim. It is important to recognize that education is strong when all of the communities served are strong, and daring and adventurous when all communities are daring and adventurous. We must have even greater educational statesmanship in every community.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

The 41st Annual Convention
of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
will be held in Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

The Classroom Teacher and the Program of Supervision

EARL K. STOCK

WHAT is the classroom teacher's role and responsibility in the program of supervision? The answer to that question at any one time is determined by the philosophy which governs the supervisory program at that time. A short generation ago the question could have been quickly and easily answered. Looking backward a few decades we find that philosophy to have been simple and definite. It was to the effect that supervision consisted of something done *by supervisors to teachers* for the purpose of making them better teachers.

EARLY PHILOSOPHY OF SUPERVISION

In this school of practice, supervision was generated entirely by the individual who was in the supervisory position. His method consisted of observation and telling. Supervision was strongly directive in nature and almost entirely one way in its operation; namely, from supervisor to teacher. For convenience we might refer to this period in the development of supervisory thought and practice as *Stage One*.

The *modus operandi* consisted almost entirely of classroom visitation, during which time the supervisor occupied a throne-chair, assumed an air of pontifical supremacy, coolly calculated the good and bad aspects of the teacher's performance and departed, frequently dropping a note on the teacher's desk duly noting by a checklist or other appropriately efficient means wherein the teacher should improve. Perchance too there was notice to report to the office for an interview at some specified time.

The teacher met the situation by mustering such of his talents as were deemed useful to such an occasion, rising to his best heights if his nervous system was so constituted; otherwise, braving the ordeal with such face and show of strength as he could muster until relieved by the bell or other fortuitous circumstance.

It was the manner and method of the day. The teacher accepted it as part of the professional scene, evaded it when he could, sought it seldom, and concentrated his attention on self-defense and putting his best foot forward. The tenseness of the situation and the resulting trepidation varied considerably, of course, in proportion to the magnanimity of the supervisor and the wearing qualities of the teacher. But the philosophy was still essentially the same—supervisor over teacher.

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In such a situation the role and responsibility of the teacher were equally simple and definite. The teacher was supposed to listen and receive. If the supervisor failed fully to observe and direct, there was little if any responsibility on the part of the teacher to seek or take initiative beyond, perhaps, an occasional respectful question.

Other supervisory practices were limited in number and scope. Teacher meetings devoted little time if any to matters of instruction and the curriculum. And it occurred to no one that teachers should ever recognize an obligation on their part to change this pattern. Texts and other teaching materials were commonly selected by administrators or supervisors with only cursory teacher concurrence if the teacher was consulted at all. Teachers accepted this arrangement without offense and with little conviction that they should have shared fully in the responsibility for examining materials and making final decisions. And so with any other matters affecting policy and practice in the classroom.

PHILOSOPHY OF SUPERVISION DEVELOPS

With the great developments in the field of education incident to post-World War I and through the depression years, certain changes took place in the philosophy and commonly employed practices of supervision, which we may describe as *Stage Two*. Supervision put on a cloak of beneficence and became not only something done *by* the supervisor *to* the teacher but also something done *by* the supervisor *for* the teacher.

Observation and telling were still the principal practices, but the spirit was kindlier and of a higher human quality. Helpfulness was its watchword. The term "helping teacher" became popular as a title for certain individuals whose labors were in the field of supervision.

Under this program the role of the teacher varied from that of the preceding stage principally in a greater rapport with the supervisor and a greater freedom and desire to seek help at the throne of competence and grace. The teacher was encouraged to ask questions, seek conference and consultation, and to embrace oracular guidance.

Nevertheless, supervision was still the supervisor's responsibility, and whatever developed in the supervisor-teacher relationship was adjudged the supervisor's success or failure, not the teacher's. Supervisors visited classrooms. Supervisors planned and held teachers' meetings. Supervisors scheduled conferences. Supervisors determined the kind and course of committees, if any. The situation was still strongly one in which the supervisor was the dynamic element, the teacher largely, though not quite so wholly, a passive element. The mood had changed somewhat, the procedures little.

PHILOSOPHY OF MODERN SUPERVISION

The more recently accepted concept of supervision, which we shall designate as *Stage Three*, retains little of what the supervisor does *to* a teacher, somewhat more of what a supervisor does *for* a teacher, but em-

braces much more emphatically the idea of what the supervisor does *with* the teacher for the improvement of the instructional program.

Though supervisors continue to have a positional responsibility for the growth and development of the curriculum and the improvement of instruction, the teacher too has a positional responsibility toward the same end. The teacher no longer fills only a passive role. Whereas the former position was largely one of receptivity, the teacher now has a large measure of responsibility for *initiative*.

This is the essence of Stage Three. No longer are ideas and moves for improving the instructional program the sole property and charge of the supervisor. The teacher too is expected to propose and promote, to plan and suggest, to evolve and introduce such practices and procedures as will improve the instructional offerings of his school. He has moved into a co-operative situation with the supervisor. His responsibilities are those of a co-partner rather than those of a hireling, even though an earnest and loyal one.

THE TEACHER'S PLACE IN THE MODERN PHILOSOPHY

How, in practice, does a teacher give effect to this philosophy? Let us look at a few of the activities which are commonly regarded as part of a supervisory program. These may be classroom visitations, teachers' meetings, study groups, special-purpose committees, surveys and evaluations, inter-school visitations, workshops, text selection, and various related activities.

The classroom visitation now becomes more than a situation where one is the observer and one the observed, one the giver and one the receiver. Both will give and both will receive. The visitation period is one during which the two persons involved will join each other in the teaching activities and problems of the visitation. The teacher shall state problems to the supervisor, raise questions, propose means and methods, discuss materials, suggest organizational changes, seek guidance services, analyze pupil and class problems with the supervisor. Any or all of these matters may arise from the teacher, rather than from the supervisor, and often should, though they may arise from either.

The teacher has the further responsibility for teachers' meetings, both as to quantity and kind. If such meetings are not effective and helpful, it is the teacher's responsibility to exercise some initiative toward making them so. It has been formerly the conviction that, if teachers' meetings are good or bad, the credit or blame belongs to the person in the administrative or supervisory position. Under a system of co-partnership and co-responsibility between supervisor and teachers, the latter too must share in the credit or blame.

Teachers can and should approach supervisors or administrators with plans, suggestions, and offers of aid for improving the nature and usefulness of such meetings. This is part of the professional responsibility they now bring to their positions as teachers. The bounds of respect for official

positions must be observed, of course, but honest and co-operative initiative is always in order and will likely be well received more times than may be commonly supposed.

In like manner the origin or improvement of other supervisory devices such as workshops, study groups, working committees, and allied activities is part of the classroom teacher's responsibility as she may see need or opportunity for the same. Steps toward curriculum improvement should not need to wait for initial action from a supervisor. Such steps may be promoted by teachers as they note the need and value thereof. Not only may the supervisor approach the teacher; the teacher may and should approach the supervisor.

This responsibility for expressing initiative in matters affecting the improvement of instruction marks the great difference between the concept of supervision and the teacher's place therein as described in Stages One and Two and the present day philosophy of supervision as described in Stage Three.

FURTHER OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

One should not leave this subject, however, without noting certain pertinent allied relationships and without clarifying some natural inferences. It should be noted, for example, that none of the foregoing statements are intended to reflect discredit on those supervisors and teachers who labored under the philosophies described in Stages One and Two when these stages were the accepted ways. It must be remembered that our entire educational theory, like our society itself, has gone through an evolutionary process. Supervision had to start somewhere and in some form, if it was to start, and the beginning that was made was natural for the educational theory and philosophy of the day in which it flourished.

The essential conclusion to draw from our comparison of the several stages of supervisory practice is that developments in our educational philosophy have now taken us far beyond what was acceptable in its own time and circumstance. We need not so much to condemn the former as to recognize and utilize the new.

It is well to note, also, that there remain times and conditions when some of the practices of Stages One and Two still have justifiable application to some degree. For this position two reasons may be stated. One is that not all supervisors and not all teachers have advanced sufficiently in understanding and acceptance of the co-responsibility philosophy to live and work effectively by it. The evolutionary process has not advanced as rapidly with some as with others. Until such change has taken place, some of the old techniques and practices will be the best available and should be used. Let no one, however, construe such a concession as proper reason for permitting the evolutionary process to lag. Progress toward a Stage Three situation should be made as rapidly as circumstances and abilities permit.

A further reason for justifying the occasional retention of Stage One and Stage Two practices is that there are, and quite certainly will continue to be, a limited number of cases where no other approach is realistically practicable. There will always be the weak, the unwilling, the obdurate, the unqualified. With them co-partnership is impracticable. The number is likely fewer than we generally admit. Nonetheless, we must admit the existence of some, wholly or in part, and gauge our practice accordingly.

Another point which needs to be emphasized in connection with the whole matter of supervision is that the evolutionary developments which have taken place require that the supervisory person be more, not less, a person of superior qualifications. The fact that more—much more—responsibility lies with the classroom teacher does not decrease the responsibility which lies with the supervisor. On the contrary, the supervisor's responsibility is greatly increased. He will be dealing with much more alert, much more imaginative, much more original and questioning personnel, and with many more and much more challenging situations.

His professional knowledge and competency will need be greater, and his capacity for high-level personal relationships must be increased. His duties will not be absorbed by teachers, nor decreased by their increase in responsibility and activity. Teachers are always entitled to expect high-quality leadership from those who occupy the positions of leadership.

As a concluding observation may we point out and emphasize that teacher-education curricula and in-service teacher-education programs should aim to orient and prepare the teacher for the co-partner relationship. It is well to let teachers in on the secret of what role they are expected to play and how they are expected to play it. It means that teachers must develop a set of attitudes and techniques quite different from those which served them under the former supervisory philosophies and procedures.

They should receive classroom visitations in a different light and should frequently initiate them by invitation to the supervisor. Their behavior patterns should be highly different during visitations, conferences, and faculty and committee meetings from those of a former day. Yet these newly desired attitudes and techniques cannot be taken for granted. Even beginning teachers may revert to type in their supervisory relationships, just as they may in their teaching methods, if conditions are unfavorable.

Certainly many experienced teachers and supervisors will need to be re-educated and led in the way of paths they have not known. This will not follow by mere chance or circumstance. There must be a planned program of education and leadership which will enable both teachers and supervisors to arrive at new understandings and to appreciate changed practices. Supervisors should accept co-partnership and co-responsibility and should make clear to teachers that such a role is expected of them.

The Oregon Evaluative Criteria Program

CLYDE MARTIN

OREGON secondary schools have played an important part in the development and use of the *Evaluative Criteria*.¹ Two rather distinct phases of the program have developed, with the years of World War II representing the dividing point. The first phase ended in 1942; the second one began in 1949 and is still in progress with a revision expected to be available in 1960.

USE OF THE 1938 AND 1940 EDITIONS

The Oregon program was initiated by the participation of Grant High School of Portland in the appraisal of the 1938 Criteria materials in mimeographed form. Following the publication of the 1938 edition, a series of twelve conferences were held throughout the state to acquaint administrators with the Criteria and the study procedures. In 1938-39 the first Oregon schools were evaluated. From this date until the spring of 1942 a total of fifty-two schools have completed evaluative studies.

The size of the schools evaluated varied from four-teacher rural high schools to a city school of ninety teachers. The membership of the visiting committees for these early visitations ranged from four to fourteen members, according to the enrollment of the school, with most of them consisting of seven or fewer members. The evaluative studies, in which the 1938 and 1940 editions of the Criteria were used, continued with enthusiastic response by participating schools until war conditions in the spring of 1942 necessitated a halt in the program.

USE OF THE 1950 EDITION

The more recent phase of the *Evaluative Criteria* program in Oregon was activated in 1949 when Corvallis and Springfield High Schools cooperated in a national program of experimental studies using tentative materials for the 1950 edition. Since that time forty-seven of the two hundred and twenty-five public secondary schools have undertaken the complete Evaluative Study, and the indications are that the program will continue with about twelve schools participating each year.

For those unfamiliar with the *Evaluative Criteria*, a short explanation of its two phases is given: *First*, a self-evaluation is conducted by a school staff,

¹The Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1951.

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during which time all the *Criteria* sections applying to the school are completed through committee action. *Second*, a committee of educators visits the school for the purpose of evaluating classroom procedures, facilities, and the general program. At this time the ratings and symbols selected by the local staff in completing the sections may be changed by the visiting committee. In addition, the chairman of the committee prepares a written report based on the findings of the subcommittees and presents it to the school with the intent that it be used as a basis for improvement of the over-all school program.

All of the studies using the 1950 edition of the *Criteria* have been coordinated by the secondary section of the State Department of Education. In general, the director and supervisors assume the following responsibilities:

1. Orient the school staff to the Evaluative Criteria Study
2. Assist with the self-evaluation
3. Select the visiting committee members
4. Serve as chairmen of the visiting committees
5. Prepare the written reports
6. Assist in planning follow-up activities

GENERAL PROCEDURES

Year to year improvements of general procedures were deemed a desirable feature of the Oregon program. These procedures are based upon those found in Section A, "Manual," of the *Evaluative Criteria*. The improvements came from three sources: (1) each member of the school staffs using the *Criteria* was questionnaired in regard to the effectiveness of the present procedures and was asked to make suggestions for improvements; (2) all members of the visiting committees were requested to evaluate the present procedures and make suggestions for improvements; and (3) the co-ordinators, as a result of their experiences while working with school staffs and visiting committees, suggested improvements.

The procedures described in the comments to follow are those which have proved successful in the Oregon program. It is specifically pointed out that all references to procedures are in relationship to the recent studies using the 1950 edition of the *Criteria*.

After the completion of a few studies, it became apparent that participating schools would profit from more detailed instructions than those found in Section A, "Manual." As a result, a bulletin² was prepared by the secondary section of the State Department of Education for the use of individual schools. Sufficient use has been made of this material to indicate its usefulness as a guide for school staffs. Perhaps its particular value has been that of amalgamating the previous experiences of those who have completed the evaluative study so that the staffs of schools now undertak-

²Secondary Section, *Evaluative Criteria Handbook*. Salem: Oregon State Department of Education, Rex Putnam, Superintendent. 1953.

ing the project can come to an agreement on interpretations and instructions without following the trial-and-error process. This handbook is revised periodically and new procedures are incorporated.

In order better to facilitate the work of both the school staff and the visiting committee, the co-ordinators have developed a number of procedural forms. Nineteen of these have been developed; fifteen of which are in duplicate form. They are as follows:

1. Co-ordinator's Progress Record
2. Committee Assignment Chart
3. Administrator's Preparation Checklist
4. Co-ordinator's Schedule of Procedures
5. Section Committee Instructions
6. School Staff's Evaluations of Procedures
7. Written Report Instructions
- 8a. Written Report Form—Commendations
- 8b. Written Report Form—Recommendations
9. Conference Sheet
10. Improvement of Procedures—Visiting Committee
11. Explanation of the *Evaluative Criteria*
12. "J" Form Evaluation
13. Tentative Criteria for "J" Forms
14. Visiting Committee Work Sheet

The use of these forms has resulted in the standardization of procedures so that committee members become thoroughly familiar with evaluation techniques. In addition, the work of the co-ordinator is simplified.

In Oregon it has been the policy to increase the size of the visiting committee while keeping the time for the visitation consistent with that suggested in Section A, "Manual." The size of the committee varies according to the enrollment of the school. It was agreed that the membership would range from a minimum of twelve to a maximum of thirty.

The personnel of the visiting committee generally consists of school administrators, teachers, college and university professors, and State Department of Education specialists. One desirable feature of the Oregon program is the inclusion of classroom teachers on visiting committees. This practice is the result of suggestions by school staffs that teachers be used in this capacity.

The balance of representation on visiting committees is illustrated by the following committee of twenty-five members: 9 teachers, 7 administrators, 5 professors, and 4 Department of Education specialists. Recognizing that the purpose of the study is to improve the local school program, it is of particular interest to observe that 1,153 teachers and administrators have participated in the 47 self-evaluations using the 1950 edition of the *Criteria*. Of equal significance is the in-service training benefits derived by those persons serving as members of the visiting committees. The extent of such participation is presented in the following table.

VISITING COMMITTEE PARTICIPATION

<i>Personnel</i>	<i>Individual Participants</i>	<i>Participants Serving More Than Once</i>	<i>Total Duplicated Participations</i>	<i>Total Participations</i>
Administrators	185	49	76	261
Professors	63	26	72	135
County Superintendents	22	10	12	34
Department of Education Specialists	30	19	126	156
Supervisors and Others	26	2	2	28
Classroom Teachers	186	14	15	201
TOTALS	512	120	303	815

With 512 individuals serving a total of 815 participations on 47 visiting committees, the in-service value to committee members becomes a most important by-product of the Evaluative Criteria Study. That such service has great value is evidenced by the favorable comments of participating members.

The problem of evaluation costs is of concern to all schools. In Oregon consideration of this problem resulted in the establishment of the following policy in reference to the responsibility for expenses of the visiting committee:

1. A program of reciprocity in the payment of teachers' expenses was established whereby the district of the released teacher is requested to pay the expenses of a substitute when such is deemed necessary. The same policy is in effect when the releasing school plans to undertake an evaluation.

2. Personnel from the state system of higher education and the State Department of Education participate without expense to the evaluated district.

3. Teachers' and administrators' expenses are assumed, whenever necessary, by the district being evaluated.

The foregoing policy has made it possible for almost any school to undertake an evaluation without undue concern about financial problems.

An Evaluative Criteria Study requires that the school staff complete its work without interfering with regularly assigned duties. An attempt has been made in Oregon to relieve the pressure of an additional load through two proposals: the *first* in reference to salary-schedule credit, and the *second* in reference to approval of "in-service school days."

Most of the school districts in Oregon have developed salary schedules in which additional college training is a prerequisite to advancement on the schedule. The co-ordinators have established a policy of recommending to school boards that school personnel undertaking an Evaluative Criteria Study be granted credit in lieu of some of the college training essential to progression on the salary schedule. Many districts have accepted this viewpoint and have put such a program into effect.

Provisions are made in Oregon school laws whereby local districts may plan certain approved "in-service days" in which state funds are made available, although students are not in school. Such in-service programs are approved through the State Department of Education, and the Evaluative Criteria Study is considered an acceptable project both for the self-evaluation and follow-up activity after the completion of the work of the visiting committee.

FOLLOW-UP

A number of objective studies are under way to determine the effectiveness of the Evaluative Criteria program. These studies are being undertaken through the co-operation of the participating schools and the State Department of Education. Several schools have carried on well-organized, extensive follow-up programs in which the work of the visiting committee and the written report have been the basis for staff study. In order more adequately to assist schools in planning follow-up activities, the secondary section of the Department of Education has developed a follow-up bulletin³ with the material consisting primarily of an extension of the follow-up information found in Section A, "Manual."

SUMMARY

1. Eighty-five Oregon secondary schools have participated in complete evaluative studies since the acceptance of the program in 1939. Sixteen of the schools completed two studies, making a total of 101 complete *Criteria* studies.

2. A total of 1,153 teachers and administrators participated in self-evaluations using the 1950 edition of the *Criteria*.

3. A total of 512 persons served as members of visiting committees for the evaluations using the 1950 edition of the *Criteria*.

4. The success of the Oregon program reflects the very excellent co-operation among the personnel of local school districts, universities and colleges, and the State Department of Education.

5. The success of the Oregon program is indicated by the continued interest of the Oregon secondary schools in the *Evaluative Criteria* studies.

³Secondary Section. *Planning a Follow-up Program for the Evaluative Criteria Study*. Salem: Oregon State Department of Education. 1955.

The Meaning of Evaluation in Education

B. EVERARD BLANCHARD

THE PRESENT view is that tests constitute probably the major type of evaluative instruments, but that such other means of measurement as the anecdotal record, the interview, the questionnaire, the rating scale, and such tools as the individual pupil profile, the class record, the cumulative record, and the case study have a significant place in the evaluation of pupil behavior and achievement. The evaluation concept has also doubtless been stimulated by the recent attention of educators and psychologists to the whole child and his behavior. This tendency to consider the child as a whole, rather than as an individual whose behavior and abilities can be catalogued into a number of different compartments, places a responsibility upon the user of tests and other instruments of evaluation for considering the child in this broad sense. It is through the application of the evaluation concept rather than of the narrower concepts of measurement and testing that the results is most effectively obtained.¹

The school, like business, must be concerned with the effectiveness of its program. Determining whether development is taking place and how much growth occurs is one of the most difficult problems in all teaching. In the past, schools have measured the amount of information students memorized by periodic and end-of-semester examinations. This narrowly conceived approach to appraisal was not concerned with genuine changes in behavior nor with the development of attitudes, appreciation, understandings, social skills, or values. Neither did it test thinking processes. Teachers used to believe that they had taught successfully when their students made high scores on examinations. This was true whether or not the students were able to retain information and whether or not they had ability to use it effectively.²

In evaluating school learning in recent years, however, increasing attention has been given to appraising such factors as the continuing adjustment of the student, development of understanding, ability to use information, development of appropriate attitudes, furthermore of appreciation, and clarification of values. This type of emphasis in evaluation makes it imperative that the school be concerned with the total growth of the student

¹Greene, H. A.; Jorgensen, A. N.; and Gerberich, J. R. *Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School*. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc. 1946. P. 7. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

²Mendenhall, C. B., and Arisman, K. J. *Secondary Education*. New York: William Sloane Associates, Inc. 1951. P. 278. Quoted by permission of the authors and publishers. (Note: The Dryden Press, Inc., purchased the entire college list of Sloane Associates, Inc., in May 1952.)

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and that his total growth and adjustments be studied in the total environment—the community.³

Brubacher states:⁴ "The movement away from measurement to evaluation is a long step in promoting better integration. Measurement has always stood for uniformity, external control, statistical methods, academic situations, and other devices of the subject curriculum. The centers of attention in evaluation are *value* to the learner and how he *behaves* as a result of such value. Since these pupil values are not amenable to statistical quantitative measurement and since pupil behavior is only slightly determined by present quantitative-measurement results, the movement toward a greater consideration of values and behavior means evaluation and not measurement. Since the underlying conceptions of evaluation are closer to those considered important in promoting integrating behavior, the change of emphasis in courses of study must be considered significant."

More recently, public schools have been devoting much time in co-operating with parents, special consultants, laymen, state departments of public instruction, teacher training institutions and university extension and advisory services in an effort to stimulate a broader interpretation of evaluation. At this point, we might ask: What procedures are effective in helping teachers, parents, and children use evaluation as a continuous co-operative process which should be an integral part of teaching?

In describing a co-operative action research project involving teachers, Zirbes states:⁵ "The procedures employed for studying children gave rise to two problems. Although an effort was made to keep the procedures employed in studying children and collecting data about their behavior closely related to the classroom activities of teachers, it was difficult to find time to observe and record behavior adequately and to use the scales and projective devices developed. To many teachers the time involved was not the most serious difficulty. They lacked skill in projective devices and making observations, anecdotal records, and questionnaires. They felt what they needed was experience and help in using the techniques and that with increased facility in their use the time problem would be reduced."

With regard to co-operative action of groups, Caswell suggests:⁶ "There are many techniques for this sort of co-operative evaluation. Evaluation by the children themselves could be based on such things as diaries, folders of work, collections, projects, discussions, personal records, informal letters, and autobiographies. Teachers could base evaluations on the above as well as on cumulative records, diaries for each child to record personal behavior, achievement tests, group records of activities, and results of discussions,

³*Ibid.*, pp. 278-279. Quoted by permission of the authors and publishers.

⁴Brubacher, John S. *Eclectic Philosophy of Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951, p. 408. Quoted by permission.

⁵Zirbes, Laura, "Our Research Responsibilities," *Educational Leadership*, Volume IX, No. 8, May 1952, p. 493.

⁶Caswell, Hollis L. and Associates. *Curriculum Improvement in Public School System*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1950, pp. 190-191. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

conferences, and observation. Group evaluations could come through discussions and conversations on topics such as children's interests, experiences, ways of behaving, and community experiences outside the classroom, and their thinking together on all matters of group concern. Evaluations by parents and community groups come through parent conferences and interviews, group meetings on common problems, and civic meetings in community problems having a bearing on the school."

The personal growth of the individual is best assured when the teacher, the parent, and all others concerned have an opportunity to agree on goals and methods. The attainment of a good evaluation would seem to involve the understanding of the purposes of a school and the objectives which it is attempting to realize. Such a scheme would also imply a procedure. An example of a co-operative action plan might be as follows:

Group Co-operative Action

Purposes	}	Unification essential
Objectives		
Discussion		
Thinking		
Action		

In discussing the evaluation procedures as used in Kingsport, Tennessee, Public School System, Caswell states:⁷ "Examples of evaluative materials are the various questionnaires used. One of these was designed to secure the staff's reaction to the procedure followed in the curriculum development program during the first year; another sought to secure the parent's attitudes and opinions concerning the program; a third evaluated the first pre-school workshop; and a fourth attempted to determine the type of organization and the areas to be included in the second pre-school workshop.

"Accordingly, this first year's evaluation related to the procedures used in carrying on curriculum development rather than to the curriculum changes adopted. It was based on the following factors: (1) the extent of staff participation in the programs; (2) experimental practices growing out of the program; (3) interest of laymen; (4) approval by the board of education of the study group recommendations; (5) evaluation of the program by the staff; (6) evaluation of the program by laymen; and (7) the consultant's evaluation of the program."⁸

In reviewing the Glencoe, Illinois, Public School System, Caswell remarks:⁹ "We interpret evaluation as a continuous process which goes on all through the duration of every experience. Too often evaluation is conceived to be the administration of objective or standardized tests at the conclusion of activities to see 'how much' children have 'learned.' This puts a false face on learning we have stressed the conviction that learning involves the whole child—his physical, social, emotional, and

⁷*Op. cit.*, p. 220. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 222. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

⁹*Ibid.*, pp. 189-190. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

intellectual being as it reacts to its environment. Such an interpretation could never allow evaluation of only one phase of learning.

"Yet too often we use a different standard in our evaluation of students and assume that passing achievement tests proves they are well educated. All it really proves is that they have a certain amount of knowledge or skill. Basic evaluation must go deeper and be concerned with behavior. This is a day-by-day and hour-by-hour process. No tests ever devised can do it as well as individual learners and teachers examining themselves as they go along. . . . The ultimate goal of our curriculum is to produce desirable changes in the lives of children. All our evaluation must stem from that goal."¹⁰

"It has been found that parents' evaluation of education has an important influence in determining whether children will attend school at all. A recent study attributed the relatively low high-school enrollment in St. Charles County, Missouri, in a large part to the negative attitude of many parents toward education. Numerous studies have shown that adult education programs usually have an important effect upon school enrollment, regularity of attendance, and the progress of pupils."¹¹

A final example of evaluation is stated by Caswell as he refers to the Minneapolis Public School System. This illustration indicates the position of those involved in studying the problem at the senior high-school level: "Evaluation of a pupil's progress should be in terms of definite objectives set up and understood by teachers, students, and parents. A student should then be marked with reference to his progress, as related to his own ability in achieving these objectives, rather than as compared with the achievement of others in the class, as is the common practice under the A B C D -F system of grades. Such evaluation to be effective, involves more detailed reporting than is now in general practice in the secondary schools. The checklist is one form which a more detailed marking might take. The marking system should also include comparative marks (marks based upon comparison with others in class) for administrative and counseling use, but such marks should not be used to serve as the basis for promotion or failure. The implications of the above philosophy are several:

"1. It implies that the senior high schools have a difficult job of adaptation and reorganization.

"2. Changes must be made in curriculum offerings to enrich and broaden them and permit a wide range of possibilities for successful performance.

"3. Study of the marking system, followed by experimentation is required.

"4. An expanded counseling service is necessary.

"5. Promotion policies and marking policies are very closely connected with teacher beliefs and teacher growth."¹²

"The development of the idea of evaluation bids fair to reduce somewhat the over-emphasis in the testing of factual materials, and to build up

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 190. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

¹¹Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon O. *Rural America Today*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. 1943. P. 66. Used by permission of the publishers

¹²*Op. cit.*, pp. 267-268. Quoted by permission of the Bureau of Publications.

a needed emphasis on the recognition of other desired aspects in the development of pupils."¹³

The trend in secondary education today appears to place a high premium on the social, emotional, and the inter-personal relationships in and between boys and girls. Johnson states:¹⁴ "Certain principles, concerned with human relationships, may be expressed as follows:

"Schools, which are designed to develop desirable, effective citizens for the American way of life, must reflect in their climates and in the inter-personal relations of all people concerned, those values basic to this way of life. Inherent in such inter-personal relations is the satisfying of the emotional needs for belonging, for successful participation, for recognition, and for sensitivity—some of the requisites to sound mental health. Such needs must be set for all people—parents, teachers, and children alike.

"The skills of active, effective 'democracy' are developed in people as they attack, through co-operative group action, problems which they have in common.

"Desirable healthy progress in improving our schools is only a part of a deeper and broader 'social change' evidenced by modified understandings, beliefs, and attitudes of people, and reflected in behavior more nearly in harmony with the social values held by our democratic society."

In determining the validity of evaluation programs, instructional purposes must be so planned that meaningful and purposeful learning outcomes may be tested by varied hypotheses.

In thinking along this same line, Mendenhall and Arisman believe:¹⁵ "Where the purpose of instruction is temporary recall of specific items of information, then short-answer testing programs treating these items have a certain validity. If, however, the goals sought are the applications of principles, knowledge, and skills for immediate solving, co-operation, and open-mindedness, then simple, short answer tests can at best serve as crude indices with questionable validity."

When we endeavor to state goals in terms of observable behavior, we must ask such questions as:

What does the student do when he gets along with his peers?

What does the student do when he assumes responsibility?

What does the student do when he bases his thinking upon sound evidence?

What does the student do who is prejudiced and intolerant of others?

What does the student do when working effectively in a group?

What does the student do when he acts upon his convictions?

What does the student do who is concerned with the welfare of his group?

It should be remembered that any type of a test has certain limitations in whatever evaluation procedure it might be utilized. Good, Barr, and Scates state:¹⁶ "Two principles, on which appraisal instruments are based,

¹³Russell, John D., and Judd, Charles H., *The American Educational System*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940, p. 443. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

¹⁴Johnson, Paul E., "A Community Plans for Better Schools," *Educational Leadership*, Volume IX, No. 8, (May, 1962), pp. 502-503.

¹⁵*Op. cit.*, pp. 280-281.

¹⁶Good, Carter V., Barr, A. S., and Scates, Douglas E. *The Methodology of Educational Research*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1936, p. 437. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

represent fundamental assumptions. First, it is assumed that better judgment can be secured on the significant aspects of an object (or situation) by centering attention on one aspect at a time. The second fundamental assumption involved in all of the instruments which yield a general total or composite rating is that general value can be approximated by a summation of the value of parts.

"There is little disagreement among educators as to the direction that should be taken in developing evaluative methods and instruments of measurement. Evaluation should be made for the purpose of helping children, youth, and adults, through their own efforts, to become better individuals and to improve their conditions of living. It is to the kind and extent of these changes that evaluation must be directed. In the past, it has been much more common practice to measure some intangible aspect of the educational program such as specific information learned by the pupils or the teacher's methods and materials of instruction, assuming that the factor measured had a positive correlation with the purpose of the school, and to form judgment on this basis. The most serious difficulty in this procedure has been that the indicative aspects of the school which are thus measured tend to become ends in themselves ardently sought by teachers, pupils, and administrators, while the real purposes of the school are neglected."¹⁷

The reasons for this indirect approach to evaluation have been pointed out by Harris.¹⁸

1. The school's effects on its pupils are difficult to discern.
2. Schools are unwilling or unable to state clearly the changes in pupil's behavior or in community life which they hope to achieve.
3. Although appraisals of organization, financial resources, personnel, or instructional methods are at first regarded only as part of a comprehensive program of appraisal, they tend to be interpreted more broadly, once they have been made.

Due to the variety of different approaches in evaluation utilized by teachers, parents, and administrators and the numerous concepts of possible attack, it is inevitable that confusion results. If we desire teachers to develop a functional approach toward meeting the needs and interests of youth, then we should encourage a functional approach in appraising desired outcomes of learning. Teachers who are provided opportunities to take field trips with their classes, who may at their leisure divert their efforts from the textbooks to roam in other areas of learning without criticism from their fellow-workers, who can actively participate in experimental work in the classroom and elsewhere without being labelled a "crack-pot," who may be freed from the daily routine to engage in inter-school visitation, and who, in short, may desire to teach in a functional

¹⁷The Fifty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. *Education in Rural Communities*. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press. 1952, pp. 282-283. Quoted by permission of the Society.

¹⁸Harris, Chester W., "The Appraisal of a School: Problems for Study," *Journal of Educational Research*, VII, (November 1947), pp. 172-182.

manner which is in accord with sound educational theory, should be welcomed members on any secondary-school faculty.

Evaluating educational programs in relation to their purposes is difficult, but not impossible. The Fifty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, *Education in Rural Communities* offers some guiding principals relative to promising evaluation, namely:

1. Evaluation must be continuous over a long period. Many of the seeds planted in the lives of rural children during their early formative years do not and cannot come to fruition until long after these children have assumed their places as adult citizens in community life.

2. The aim of evaluation is to reveal difficulties, point the way to improvement, and give direction to growth; it is not to give recognition or prestige to individuals or to serve as a basis for pupil promotion.

3. Many people must be involved in evaluation—administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and other interested laymen in the community. They can formulate plans that will fuse their efforts toward the better organization and operation of the school system.

4. Evaluation cannot always be based on objective data. Many of the most highly prized outcomes of the school cannot be precisely measured. To ignore them because they resist exact measurement is to place in an incidental category some of the most vital elements of the educational program.

5. Exact measurement and concrete objective data are, however, highly desirable. Continued refinement of the evaluative procedures will make such concrete evidence available and strengthen the foundation on which the school system rests.

6. Many more sources of evidence and type of data need to be given consideration in the evaluative program. Devices must be created and procedures developed which will bring such data together in a form that will reflect the true character of the educational program. For example, follow-up studies of pupils who have left rural schools would yield information about the difficulties rural young people have in adjusting to city life and how the rural schools could have been of more help in preparing them for this adjustment.

7. Appraisals of the organization and operation of the many aspects of the school and of the academic performance of its pupils will continue to be important phases of evaluation, but evaluation must reach beyond this. It must go past the school into the lives of individuals, to their homes and to their communities. It must encompass the behavior patterns, the levels of living, and the organizations and institutions through which such a large part of community life functions. It must extend to the value patterns which give direction to community life. For these things the rural school has been assigned a large measure of responsibility. The school should be evaluated in terms of its responsibilities.¹⁰

¹⁰*Op. cit.*, pp. 283-284. Quoted by permission of the Society.

The Position of the Subordinate Administrator in the Secondary School

LOUIS GRANT BRANDES

MOST high schools of three hundred or more enrollment have part-time or full-time administrative positions that are subordinate to the principal of the school. These positions are recognized as important links in the administrative organization of a secondary school.

Increasing secondary-school population provides the prospects for many new high schools. This means the organization of many new high-school staffs, as well as the reorganization of the staffs in many existing schools. Wherever new schools are being organized, or where reorganizations are contemplated, school administrators are asking: How many administrators should be included on the staff and what should their duties be?

ADMINISTRATOR-PUPIL RATIOS

An early attempt to determine the ratio of administrators to the number of pupils enrolled was made by Boyles, in 1942.¹ Boyles secured data from 291 secondary schools in city systems with a city population of 10,000 to 25,000. For the purpose of the study, teachers doing administrative work were classified as administrators for the portion of the day devoted to this study. He reported the median enrollment for each full-time administrator as follows: four-year high schools, 570; six-year junior-senior high schools, 550; three-year senior high schools, 450.

French, Hull, and Dodds question the practice of assigning as many as 450 pupils to each administrator and state that, "In all probability, in very few schools is the administrator load light enough for securing optimum results."²

Spaulding, in 1952, reported an attempt to obtain administrator-pupil ratios in selected schools across the nation.³ He reasoned that the size of a school staff would be determined to a large degree by financial pressures; that the poorer school districts would have the smaller staffs. He wondered what the size of the staffs would be if the financial pressures were removed. Consequently, he sent questionnaires to twenty-six schools

¹Boyles, R. E. "What Is a Satisfactory Pupil-Administrator Load?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, January 1952, pp. 46-57.

²French, Wm.; Hull, J. D.; and Dodds, B. L. *American High School Administration*. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1951. P. 172.

³Spaulding, H. G. "What Is an Adequate High-School Staff," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, January 1952, pp. 46-57.

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having an enrollment between 800 and 2,500. The schools selected were in higher than average expenditure ranges and were recognized for being good schools. He reported that average administrator-pupil ratio was 1/355, with a range of from 1/155 to 1/694. He stated that the average large high school would have to increase its staff by 40 per cent to equal the average staff of the selected schools. He added that most of the principals contacted indicated that they felt their school staffs were inadequate to put on all the programs and offer the services they felt to be desirable. Although Spalding's study has the limitations of a relatively small sampling and the means of selection of the schools quite subjective, it seems to indicate that the administrator-pupil ratios in the average school is far greater than would be the case if financial pressures were released.

Howell reported, in March 1952, the results of a study made by the secondary-school administrators of the Richmond, California, City Schools.⁴ The study recommended that administrator-pupil loads be determined as follows: Schools of 1,000 enrollment or over should have a vice principal, dean of boys, and dean of girls. If enrollment reaches 2,000, a second vice principal would be needed. Proportionate assistance would be provided the deans as enrollment increased. The position of administrative assistant would be used when schools fall between an indicated need for one and two vice principals. The recommendations of the Richmond study have become current practice in that city. In practice the recommendations have resulted in an administrator-pupil ratio of approximately 1/400.⁵

A further review of the literature seems to indicate a great variance in opinion as to the proper size of staff. About all that can be said is that the number of administrators in a given school depends upon a multiplicity of factors, including the wealth of the school district, the program of services for pupils that is being attempted, the size of the school, and the physical make-up of the school plant. A further complication to arriving at conclusions is that both the titles and the indicated duties of full-time and part-time administrators working under the principal vary greatly. In view of this evidence, it would seem logical to recommend that the administrators of each school district assume the responsibility of a continuous evaluation of their secondary-school programs in terms of numbers of administrative personnel. Only when it can be shown that an increased administrative staff results in a better program can the increased expenditures for such a staff be justified.

TITLES OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

After a survey of the literature concerning the subject of subordinate administrators in the secondary school, it is apparent that there is no

⁴Howell, C. V. "Administrative Organization in the Secondary Schools of Richmond," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, March 1952, pp. 162-5.

⁵Crouch, Sterling. "A Comparison of Current Practices with Regard to Size of Administrative Staff in Large Secondary Schools with That of Helms Junior High School," Seminar Report, University of California, Berkeley, Summer 1964.

agreement of what the positions are; there are no clear definitions of the roles; there are no standards of preparation. In other words, the subordinate administrator has been "all things to all men" (principals). This may be a healthy sign, to the extent that it means the particular situation has determined the duties of the subordinate administrators. On the other hand, this may be a sign that the principal has been all too unwilling to define the areas in which his own work should be limited and assistant sought. Again, it may mean simply that there is no agreement among schools on the titles which are given to staff members who are assigned administrative tasks on a part-time or full-time basis.

A trend of large California secondary schools to replace the dean of boys, dean of girls, and one vice principal by two or more vice principals and/or assistant principals was reported by Brandes, in 1949.⁶ This practice was most prevalent in the southern part of the state. In most of the references consulted, however, the titles assistant principal and dean were used rather than that of vice-principal. Quite often the dean is mentioned as subordinate to the vice-principal or assistant principal. Studies seem to indicate, for the most part, that the titles are interchangeable. It was also revealed that many administrative tasks assigned to assistant principals, vice principals, or deans have also been assigned to comptrollers, department heads, administrative assistants, registrars, teachers, and clerks.

As the result of the lack of conformity as to titles, the title of assistant principal will be used in the remainder of this article. The title of assistant principal will thus include those titles commonly assigned subordinate administrators, including dean, assistant principal, administrative assistant, and vice principal.

NECESSITY FOR ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon point out that, "The larger the school becomes, the more the principal should realize that it is difficult for him to see and to know and to do everything in the school."⁷ The authors also stress the fact that there should be some "insurance against the possible incapacity or loss of the chief executive."⁸ These words might well be reflected upon by those schools which have had the same principal for a long period of time and during which time the schools have grown much larger. In such schools one is apt to find a lack of recognition of the need for administrative help.

The necessity for having a "second in command" who is clearly identified as such may not be entirely recognized in all high schools, but many of the duties listed as being those of the assistant principal have been assigned to staff members bearing many of the titles mentioned. The writers like what Briggs has said relative to this point: "A school is organized so that

⁶Brandes, L. G. "The Administrative Policies and Practices in California High Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, October 1949, pp. 334-9.

⁷Edmonson, J. B.; Roemer, Joseph; and Bacon, F. L. *The Administration of The Modern Secondary School*. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1948. P. 96.

⁸*Ibid.*

it may be administered, it is administered that it may be instructed. Neither organization nor administration has any value in itself; indeed, they have no meaning apart from facilitating instruction."⁹ If the principal keeps these points in mind, works within the framework of his particular situation, and thinks only of the good of the school, when the need for assistants arises, he will be able to recognize the fact and makes a wise choice as an inherent part of the over-all job he has to do.

SELECTION OF THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

Most writers agree that the assistant principal should be selected on the basis of joint recommendation of the principal with whom he will be working and the superintendent. In one reference the principal reveals how he enlisted the aid of his faculty in setting up the qualities which should be possessed by the assistant principal, in light of the duties he would perform.¹⁰ The faculty rated its own members for consideration by the principal for recommendation to the superintendent. Interestingly enough, only six people were repeatedly rated as fitting the qualifications which had been set up, and they were the same people the principal already had in mind.

There seem to be two points of view on the question "Should the assistant principal be selected with the thought of his qualifications for the principalship?" Edmonson, Roemer, and Bacon take the view in many cases the assistant is selected as a specialist to complement the principal and is perhaps not qualified in an all-round way to act as principal.¹¹ On the other hand, Weiss expresses the view that it is wise to use the assistant principal's position as a training ground and that the principal has a responsibility to provide the kind of experiences that would make this training really effective.¹² French, Hull, and Dodds also take this point of view, saying, "It is reasonable for the principal to choose an assistant who works with great effectiveness in areas where he himself is least skillful. However, such a choice obligates the principal to provide his assistant increasing opportunities for growth . . . into the responsibilities of the principalship, and in his turn he will select an assistant whose qualities and characteristics complement his own."¹³

Only one reference was found that revealed any data on the practices of selecting an assistant principal from within the staff *versus* going outside. At that time it was reported that "If the trend continues, two thirds of the future appointees will be promoted from senior high-school teaching positions."¹⁴

⁹Briggs, T. H. *Improve Instruction*. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1938. P. 99.

¹⁰Cohler, M. J. "The Faculty Helps Select the Assistant Principal," *The American School Board Journal*, February 1949, pp. 33-4.

¹¹Edmonson, et al., *op. cit.*, p. 96.

¹²Weiss, G. A. W. "The Duties of the Secondary-School Vice Principal," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, December 1953, pp. 109-17.

¹³French, et al., *op. cit.*, p. 173.

¹⁴Wright, W. A. E. "Educational and Vocational Histories of Vice or Assistant Principals in Senior High Schools," *School and Society*, April 29, 1939, pp. 553-6.

Whether or not the assistant principalship is thought of as a "training period," the choice should be made upon the same basis as one would select any member of the staff—the best possible person for the job at hand. This means, of course, that careful thinking goes into setting up the scope of the position as well as the qualifications needed.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

It has been said that "If we accept the concept that ultimate responsibility for the school should rest with the principal, it seems that he should have as large freedom as possible in the delegation of functions to his assistants."¹⁵ If this has been true, the principal has not always used assistants to the best advantage. Van Eman found in 1926 that assistant principals had duties which were largely clerical in nature or supervisory of extracurricular activities and not much else.¹⁶ In 1946 a survey was made in Wisconsin and Minnesota because the author felt there was "too little objective evidence concerning his (assistant principal's) duties and responsibilities."¹⁷ This study revealed only a few tasks in the area of pupil accounting as being the sole responsibility of the assistant, but quite a long list of shared responsibilities in curriculum, school control, and guidance.

The most recent study appearing in the literature lists fifty-six duties and responsibilities exercised either personally or on a shared basis by not less than 24.2 per cent of sixty-six secondary-school assistant principals in the eastern United States.¹⁸ The three duties performed personally by over 50 per cent of those responding are: (1) running the school in the absence of the principal, (2) representing the school at community function in lieu of the principal, and (3) parent conference regarding pupil discipline. When it is observed that there are only three responsibilities performed personally by over 50 per cent of those responding, it is easy to agree with the statement that the "assistant principal may be partly responsible for many things but not completely responsible for anything. . . ." ¹⁹ A review of the list, however, makes it easy to share the author's conclusion that "The number of duties which the assistant principal may expect to be called upon to perform are great and vary in their nature. Therefore, to fill the position, a man with a broad background, both in teaching and administration, as well as psychology and guidance, is needed. The complexity of his position is so great and the number of responsibilities so large that a man with limited training and background would be unable to fill the position. The training required of the position is as

¹⁵Koon, L. V.; Hughes, J. M.; Hutson, P. W.; and Reavis, W. C. *Administering the Secondary School*. New York: American Book Co. 1940. P. 478.

¹⁶Van Eman, C. R. "The Function of the Assistant High-School Principal and Other Assistant Executives," *Educational Research Bulletin*, March 31, 1926.

¹⁷Boardman, C. W.; Gran, J. M.; and Holt, A. E. "The Duties and Responsibilities of the Assistant Principal in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, March 1946, pp. 3-11.

¹⁸Weiss, *op. cit.*

¹⁹Seyfert, W. C. "Please Ask Mr. Smith To Come In," *The School Review*, February 1954, pp. 70-1.

great as that of the principal, or at least nearly so. Only the experience should vary if any requirement varies at all."²⁰

THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY TO HIS ASSISTANTS

The principal should assume the responsibility for defining the duties and responsibilities of his assistants. This should be done in co-operation with the superintendent and the principal's own advisory committee. Although Kyte is referring to the elementary field, his statements are equally applicable to the secondary principal: "Upon the principal devolves the obligation of clarifying for the assistant principal the nature of the delegated responsibilities. . . . The assistant must understand clearly what he is expected to do and the nature of the authority vested in him. . . . The principal is obligated to clarify for teachers, pupils, janitors, secretaries, and others, the relation of the assistant's work to them and the relation of all concerned of their responsibilities to him. They should know definitely how his duties and responsibilities differ from those of the principal and what authority is delegated to him."²¹

Perhaps one of the best ways of discharging this responsibility is the administrative handbook suggested by Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon. These authors say, "These handbooks represent a forward step in the organization of the work of the school principal, provide great assistance to the teaching staff in establishing proper relationship with personnel charged with administrative functions, and make possible the elimination of waste frequently resulting from uncertainty and lack of organization."²²

Seyfert puts the matter a bit more informally: "More and more principals are going to have assistants to whom they can do some delegating, and they ought to be able to do it with more rhyme or reason or both than many of us have in the past.

SUMMARY

1. The number of administrators needed in a given school depends on a number of factors peculiar to the school district and the specific school within the district. These factors include the wealth of the district, the program of services attempted, the size of the school, and the physical make-up of the plant. An administrator-pupil ratio of approximately 1/400 can be supported in terms of practice and opinion, but not in terms of comparative results.

2. There is no substantial agreement as to the titles of subordinate administrators. The titles assigned seem to depend upon the needs of a particular school or district and the personalities that comprise the school and the school system. The title of assistant principal seem to be the one most commonly used.

²⁰Weiss, *op. cit.*

²¹Kyte, G. C. *The Principal at Work*. New York: Ginn and Co. 1941. P. 371.

²²Jacobson, P. B.; Reavis, W. C.; and Logsdon, J. D. *Duties of School Principals*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1950. P. 217.

²³Seyfert, *op. cit.*

3. Subordinate administrators are a necessary part of any large high school organization. If a large school is to run efficiently and effectively, the principal must delegate specific responsibilities to competent assistants.

4. The principal's assistants should be selected by the principal with whom they will be working and the superintendent. It may be well to select the assistants with abilities that complement those of the principal, but with the potential to assume the full responsibility of the principalship should the need arise. No one kind of assistant is the answer for all principals; selection should be largely determined by the needs of the school. There is evidence of a trend to make selections from within the staff.

5. The duties an assistant will be called upon to perform are great in number and varied in nature. His qualifications should be second only to those of the principal. They should include teaching and administrative experience and a knowledge of psychology and guidance.

6. The principal is responsible for clearly defining the duties and responsibilities of his assistants.

7. As the complexity of the administrative role increases and more assistance is needed for the proper discharge of those duties with which the principal is charged, there may be need for reconsideration of the amount of money which is budgeted for administrative purposes. The principal of the modern comprehensive high school is performing in quite a different way from the administrator of the past.

BEMIS, S. F. *John Quincy Adams and the Union*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc. 1956. 584 pp. \$8.75. This second volume, resting like the first on full and unrestricted access to the Adams Family archives, concludes the author's basic biography of John Quincy Adams. It covers the "Second Career" of this remarkable statesman and many-sided personality: his election as sixth president of the United States, his program of Liberty with Power, his defeat by Andrew Jackson, the trials of his private life, his return to a humble seat in the House of Representatives from the Plymouth District of Massachusetts, his seventeen-year struggle there for the Union in the great sectional controversy over slavery, and his dramatic death on the floor of the House while protesting the decoration of generals who had won the war with Mexico.

An Intern Report

RICHARD W. SELTZER

IN RECENT years many local school districts and universities have been working on a new approach for the training of school administrators.¹ One of the most promising developments has been the internship in school administration. Under an internship program, the intern is typically assigned to an administrator who holds a position similar to what the intern desires and works under his direction for the equivalent of one full term. Usually an advanced graduate in educational administration at one of the participating schools of education is selected as a candidate for this training through the co-operative efforts of the university and the school district. In most instances the candidate is new to the school district in which he will undergo his training.

I was fortunate to be selected for such training and undertook my internship during the school year 1954-55. However, there were some modifications in the usual program as I experienced it. The most outstanding deviation from the customary program was that I was not new to the school district, having taught the previous year in the school that was to be the scene of the experience. My internship was to be in the area of the secondary-school principalship. I planned to do my work in a suburban high school with an enrollment of 1,000 students. The school was part of a county system with a total student population of approximately 50,000.

More than a year before undertaking the internship, I established basic plans co-operatively with the university adviser, a representative of the superintendent's office, and the field sponsor (in this case the high-school principal). Because of the uniqueness of this particular internship, considerable time had to be devoted to special arrangements between the school district and me. Among the decisions to be made were those involving the following:

1. What part of the school year would be assigned to the program?
2. What remuneration, if any, would the intern receive from the school district?
3. What would the intern's status be on the faculty?
4. What college credit would be awarded?

It was decided that the internship program would encompass the complete school year for the purpose of providing experience in the full school program. It was further decided that I would be employed as a half-time

¹The Program has been fostered through the efforts of the Co-operative Program for Educational Administration.

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teacher and, therefore, carry a half-teaching load. School board policy indicated that remuneration would equal sixty per cent of the regular salary.² Since I was including the internship as the final stage of my doctoral work, the University of Maryland agreed to grant me twelve semester credit hours for the full program.

Before the preceding school year closed, plans had been laid for the exact kind of program that I wanted. Since the internship is primarily a learning experience for the intern, he should largely select the areas in which he desires to learn. Working on this basic assumption, I developed an outline including nine major areas of interest:

1. Personal relationships, including faculty and professional personnel, other school employees (custodial, secretarial, cafeteria), students, and the community
2. Financial administration
3. Guidance, including testing, student and parent conferences, discipline, and attendance
4. Scheduling
5. School plant operation, including maintenance and use of facilities by community
6. Records and reports
7. School opening and closing with emphasis on the peculiar nature of these two phases of school operation
8. School law and school board policy
9. Curriculum

For each area the purposes which I hoped to achieve were carefully formulated. My desires as an intern were tempered by the co-operative efforts of the principal, or Field Sponsor, and the Internship Co-ordinator from the University of Maryland.³ As a group, we discussed and revised until we had a plan which would be beneficial to all concerned.

The principal, in setting up his schedule, arranged for me to be in the office the first period of the day. This arrangement, we reasoned, would provide an opportunity for me to participate in the administration which precedes the beginning of classes and also would enable me to follow through with the necessary administrative routines and problems during the first two hours of the school day.

Being a man with family responsibilities, I would not be able to pursue the internship without some source of income. To meet this requirement, I felt it necessary to take the internship on a basis that would provide at least part salary. Accordingly, the principal and members of the superintendent's staff determined that I should teach three classes per day and thereby be entitled to 60 per cent of the usual salary. This was not the most satisfactory arrangement, as became evident during the year, but it was the best possible under the circumstances.

²In some areas the precedent of providing reasonably adequate remuneration for such internships has been established.

³Mr. J. J. Tarallo, Principal, and Dr. Clarence A. Newell, Internship Co-ordinator.

The schedule called for my teaching second and third periods, with the fourth period in the office. After lunch I would teach a third class (fifth period) and then return to my office assignment for the remainder of the day. In this way I would be available for a better distribution of administrative situations than, for example, if I remained in the office all morning or all afternoon. Throughout the planning stage the theme remained the same, "How can the internship be *most* meaningful for the intern and all concerned?" Because of this attitude, a maximum of flexibility was provided for in the program, and at the same time specific responsibilities were delegated to the intern.

Plans were laid in the spring for definite assignment before school opened in the fall:

1. The intern would work closely with the vice-principal on all attendance problems.
2. The intern would prepare plans for and carry out the orientation program for new teachers.
3. The intern would take charge of discipline problems arising on school busses (eighty per cent of student body are riders).

During the summer months the list of internship activities was further modified as a result of conferences with the Internship Co-ordinator and conversations with individuals who had been either field sponsors or interns. The result was that by one week before the opening of school the objectives of the program were well established and crystal clear in my mind.

I arrived at the school a week before the students were to appear and immediately conferred with the school principal. There were some last minute adjustments in my schedule and then we decided on activities to be engaged in immediately. It was felt that, since I was doing my internship in the area of the principalship, I should follow through as much of the principal's schedule as possible.

On this first day, there was a meeting of all of the principals and supervisors at one of the other high schools. I immediately became a part of the group and found myself in a whirl of conferences. In all of these meetings, I was made to feel that I belonged.

On succeeding days I worked with the vice principal on schedule revisions and plans for first-day teacher orientation. These early days of the program were punctuated by frequent impromptu conferences during which the internship activities were evaluated in terms of their real learning value.

It wasn't long before school opened for students and the surge of activity kept everyone on his toes. Following previous plans, I worked closely with the vice-principal on the registration of new students and on the impromptu counseling with those students who had schedule problems. As classes met for the first time, I accompanied the principal in noting pupil overcrowding. This was followed by participation in room re-

scheduling which was necessary in a few instances. Busses were checked in and out, time schedules posted, and rosters made of bus students. This experience proved to be a valuable asset in future handling of behavior problems.

As an assistant to the principal, I was usually left on my own, once an assignment was made, to carry through from planing to observation, to decision making, then to take action on any situation. This applied to the assignment given me to see what could be done about crowded cafeteria conditions. After thorough discussion with the cafeteria manager on the salient features of the problem; namely, schedules, food preparation and seating capacity,—it was determined that rescheduling of some of the classes to ease room crowding would result in a greater volume of cafeteria patronage. The necessary preliminaries were reviewed by the field sponsor and, being approved, went into effect the next day. The follow-through included my checking each lunch period (there were three such periods) to verify anticipated easing of the situation. At the completion of the assignment the school principal and I evaluated what had been done in light of the benefits to all concerned.

A variety of attendance problems were confronted during the course of the year, one of which might be reviewed here. This involved a freshman student who had a way of telling a very believable story. It seems that J. B. had been out two or three days during which time the school unsuccessfully attempted to reach the parents at home. At this time J. B. called the school and very apologetically announced that he had been "sick in bed" the past few days, but was well now. However, his mother had broken her leg and he would have to remain with her "a while." A week went by and J. B. answered the phone. His mother was well enough to be out of the house, but now he had scarlet fever and would have to be out for another week or so. Although the situation seems ludicrous now, it was very convincing at the time, particularly since J. B. asked if someone could bring his class assignments and books home to him.

Finally, when I called his home again, J. B. reported he had recovered from scarlet fever but had just broken his arm and wouldn't be at school for another week. The school nurse was immediately contacted and paid a visit to the home in the evening. She discovered the boy's mother knew nothing of her son's absence for such a long period of time or any period for that matter. "I always send him off to school bright and early every morning," the mother emphasized. She further revealed that she had not been confined with a broken leg at any time. This misrepresentation on the part of her son was a complete shock to her, the nurse reported, but it was no less of a shock to the school.

It was decided in the early planning for this internship that I should maintain an anecdotal record of some type that would indicate how well the originally desired purposes were being achieved. To accomplish this end I set up a loose-leaf method of recording pertinent daily activities

which were coded so that these activities related to the purposes formulated earlier. This codification made possible a periodic tabulation of all activities participated in and of the number of experiences in any one area. This procedure also brought to light, in the regular weekly evaluation, which areas needed attention. In this way I was held to the original plan with some degree of consistency.

Regular administrative duties were continually delegated to me throughout the year as there was no effort to set up "easy" or "canned" situations. Discipline problems were dealt with by me as they arose with no effort on the part of the school principal to have me work only with the "simple" cases. This realism often called for extreme action. One of the teachers wrote the principal that she "wouldn't allow" one of her female students to enter her class because she had been "impertinent and refused to apologize." The field sponsor asked if I would like to handle the situation and, fully realizing the responsibility being placed upon me, I said I would like to see if I might help. Following the best personnel policy I knew, I first spoke with the teacher, reviewing the steps leading to the climax situation. She agreed to meet with the student at a later time and attempt a reconciliation. I also conferred with the student to get her side of the story and arranged for a joint meeting. After pondering my notes, I called the teacher and student together in the best principal manner I knew and proceeded to thrash out the difficulty. Here I had a very real opportunity to apply all I had learned about "group-processes" and "personnel relationships." The outcome was reported to the field-sponsor immediately, and we evaluated the action which had transpired. It was a satisfying thing to note that the teacher and student involved were satisfied with the outcome, as was the principal.

At frequent intervals of four or six weeks, the university co-ordinator met with the field sponsor and me to review and evaluate the progress being made in the program. It seemed desirable to include others from the school system's administrative staff as often as possible. During the year at these meetings there were present, in addition to those already referred to, the superintendent of schools, the assistant superintendent for the educational program, the assistant superintendent for professional personnel, and the local school supervisor. At these meetings I was responsible for initiating the discussion. It was planned that I would concentrate on certain phases of the program for these conferences. The topics for some of the conferences were as follows:

1. Review of program as outlined, with emphasis on purposes for its conduct
2. Analysis of specific personnel problems encountered, including the creative thinking and philosophy involved
3. Analysis of a specific anecdote and review of anecdotal record
4. Review of experience tally, including number and quality of experiences
5. Review of concrete evidence indicating things learned
6. General evaluation of the internship program as practiced in this situation

These conferences, usually of about two hours duration, served to bring together the thinking of all concerned and give new insight and direction to the internship activities which followed. Since I was the focal point and provided the motivation for the conferences, they took on the true color of evaluative sessions rather than restrictive meetings. The top administrative personnel of the country, from the superintendent on down, benefited in varying degrees, but all indicated a greater understanding of and confidence in the program and what was being done to prepare school administrators in a positive manner. The internship was a full one and provided a variety of genuine administrative situations which could be experienced only by the intern in school administration.

SUMMER SESSIONS

THE March 1956, issue of THE BULLETIN contained a list of summer school sessions that are providing courses during summer sessions particularly related to the junior high school. Below is an additional listing of colleges that are offering courses during their summer sessions relating to the junior high school as well as other types of courses.

Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa

Iowa State Teachers College will offer a course on the junior high school (Ed. 568) from June 11 to August 3, 1956. The course carries five quarter hours of credit. For particulars write to Oscar E. Thompson, Director of Summer Sessions, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida

The Florida State University will offer a course entitled "Developing the General Education (Core) Program in Secondary Schools" (Ed. 547) with emphasis on the junior high-school level. The course offers advanced study of the purposes, curriculum, and organization suited to the developmental period of early adolescence. Some emphasis will be given to the pupil activity program. For complete information write to Virgil E. Strickland, Associate Professor of Education, School of Education, the Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida.

State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey

The Montclair State Teachers College will offer courses during the summer session that deal with both the junior and the senior high school. For particulars write to Edward J. Ambry, Director, Summer Part-Time and Extension Division, State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey.

Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon

Oregon State College is offering a workshop on counseling adolescents on premarriage and family problems, June 18-28, 1956. The course carries three hours of credit. For particulars write to Lester A. Kirkendall, Professor of Family Life, Oregon State College, School of Home Economics, Corvallis, Oregon.

Improved Educational Backgrounds of Alabama High School Principals

HAROLD H. PUNKE

ONE index of the quality of education offered by the public schools of a state is the educational preparation received by the teaching and administrative staffs. This study presents data on changes in the educational backgrounds of Alabama high-school principals during the past quarter century. Insofar as available data permit, consideration is given to both junior and senior high schools and to schools for both races.¹

GENERAL STATUS AND UPGRADING OF PRINCIPALS

The educational backgrounds of staffs in our public schools is commonly estimated in terms of academic training and degrees held. Table I presents data on degrees held by principals of white senior high schools in Alabama. Column 6 shows that in 1953-54 somewhat more than four times as large a percentage of male principals of white senior high schools held master's degrees as in 1928-29. Column 7 shows, roughly, a corresponding decrease in percentage of principals who held no degree above the bachelor's. While in 1928-29 approximately one principal out of every 15 had no degree, the study revealed only one principal in the entire group of white senior high schools of 1953-54 with no academic degree. One or two men holding doctor's degrees temporarily came into senior high-school principalships during the depression of the early 1930's, but it seems to have been considerably later before anybody with this degree was attracted to such positions on a stable basis.

A study of columns 6 and 7 for the years 1941-42 to 1948-49 shows the retarding influence of World War II on upgrading among white senior high-school principals in Alabama. Apparently younger men with superior academic training were called into military service while older men with less training (cols. 7 and 8) and women (col. 4) filled their places as principals. From columns 3 and 4, one can determine the small proportion of women among principals of the state's white senior high schools. At no time has any woman principal held the doctorate, so far as this study was able to determine, and most of the time the percentage holding the master's degree was smaller than in the case of men principals.

¹Data for the study are from the *Educational Directory* of the state of Alabama for the years shown in the respective tables.

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TABLE I.—Number of White Senior High-School Principals Reported, Distribution of Principals by Sex, and Percentage Distribution of Male Principals by Educational Background (For school years from 1928-29 to 1953-54 inclusive)

School Year	Number and Sex of Principals			Percentage Distribution of Male Principals by Highest Academic Degrees Held			
	Total	Male	Female	Doctor's	Master's	Bachelor's	No Degree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1953-54	339	333	6	1.5	76.9	21.3	0.3
1952-53	340	334	6	0.9	74.6	23.9	0.6
1951-52	337	333	4	0.9	69.1	29.1	0.9
1950-51	340	336	4	0.6	63.4	35.1	0.9
1949-50	339	334	5	0.3	62.6	35.9	1.2
1948-49	342	336	6	0.3	59.8	37.8	2.1
1947-48	347	339	8	0.3	58.7	38.9	2.1
1946-47	351	340	11	0.6	57.6	40.0	1.8
1945-46	355	343	12	0.6	56.0	42.0	1.4
1944-45	355	343	12	0.9	53.1	44.3	1.7
1943-44	354	343	11	0.3	55.4	42.3	2.0
1942-43	354	345	9	0.3	56.8	41.5	1.4
1941-42	350	344	6	0.0	60.5	38.4	1.1
1940-41	349	344	5	0.0	58.1	40.7	1.2
1939-40	349	344	5	0.0	52.3	45.9	1.8
1938-39	351	346	5	0.0	46.5	51.8	1.7
1937-38	350	344	6	0.0	41.0	57.3	1.7
1936-37	351	344	7	0.0	39.5	57.0	3.5
1935-36	328	323	5	0.0	36.5	61.0	2.5
1934-35	325	320	5	0.0	33.4	63.8	2.8
1933-34	317	314	3	0.3	32.2	65.6	1.9
1932-33	315	310	5	0.3	31.0	65.5	3.2
1931-32	317	309	8	0.6	27.5	68.3	3.6
1930-31	302	298	4	0.3	23.5	71.5	4.7
1929-30	300	296	4	0.0	20.6	73.3	6.1
1928-29	291	287	4	0.0	17.8	75.6	6.6

Table II presents data on white junior high schools. Column 7 shows that, roughly, five times as large a percentage of the principals of white junior high schools held master's degrees during the last few years reported as during the early 1930's. Upgrading in educational background of principals is shown by column 8 in two ways. (a) During the early years reported by the table, an increase in percentage of principals with no degree higher than a bachelor's represented upgrading. This fact of upgrading is more apparent if one notes from column 9 the corresponding decrease in non-degree principals during the same years. (b) During the last few years indicated by the table, further upgrading is shown by column 8 through the decrease in percentage of principals with no degree above the bachelor's. The upgrading revealed by this decrease is more obvious if one notes the corresponding increase in percentage holding master's

TABLE II.—Number of White Junior High-School Principals Reported, Distribution of Principals by Sex, and Percentage Distribution of Male Principals by Educational Background (For school years from 1931-32 to 1953-54).

School Year	Number and Sex of Principals				Percentage Distribution of Male Principals by Highest Academic Degree Held*			
	Males				No Degree			
	Total	Ed. data Reported	No Ed. data Reported	Females	Doctors	Master's	Bachelor's	No Degree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1953-54	218	203	1	14	No white junior high school principal with a doctor's degree was revealed by the study.	43.8	46.8	9.4
1952-53	217	202	0	15		38.6	49.0	12.4
1951-52	214	199	1	14		38.7	46.2	15.1
1950-51	207	187	7	13		32.1	54.5	13.4
1949-50	203	187	5	11		31.0	52.9	16.1
1948-49	213	195	5	13		27.2	54.2	18.5
1947-48	210	191	5	14		22.0	57.6	20.4
1946-47	210	191	4	18		21.5	53.4	25.1
1945-46	218	188	5	25		20.2	53.7	26.1
1944-45	227	188	10	29		22.3	58.5	19.2
1943-44	219	190	8	21		23.1	57.4	19.5
1942-43	209	184	7	18		25.0	57.6	17.4
1941-42	203	184	6	13		25.0	54.9	20.1
1940-41	167	153	3	11		24.8	56.2	19.0
1939-40	154	144	4	6		22.9	58.3	18.8
1938-39	146	136	4	6		24.3	55.9	19.8
1937-38	139	124	7	8		18.5	58.9	22.6
1936-37	245	207	25	13		12.1	50.2	37.7
1935-36	190	167	12	11		6.6	42.5	50.9
1934-35	71	68	0	3		5.9	61.8	32.3
1933-34	69	65	0	4		7.7	38.5	53.8
1932-33	69	64	0	5		7.8	35.9	56.3
1931-32	71	65	0	6		9.2	35.4	55.4

*Percentages are based on the data of column 3.

degrees and the further decrease in percentage holding no degree. Persons who are interested in the upgrading of white high schools in Alabama can find encouragement in the rather steady decline in percentage of junior high-school principals with no degree and the general corresponding increase in percentage holding the master's degree. "Arrested development" in the upgrading process, which accompanied World War II, is apparent from both Table I and Table II. Economic depression and the development of Federal aid programs may help account for the fluctuation in data during the middle of the 1930's (Table II). Changes in school organizations and perhaps reporting uncertainties during this period seem to be reflected by column 3.

TABLE III.—Number of Negro Senior High-School Principals Reported, Distribution of Principals by Sex, and Percentage Distribution of Male Principals by Educational Background (For school years from 1941-42 to 1953-54).

School Year	Number and Sex of Principals				Percentage Distribution of Male Principals by Highest Academic Degree Held*			
	Males							
	Total	Ed. data Reported	No Ed. data Reported	Females	Doctor's	Master's	Bachelor's	No Degree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1953-54	178	178	0	8	No Negro Sr. H. S. Prin. with a doctor's degree was revealed by the study.	47.2	48.9	3.9
1952-53	170	168	2	8		46.4	48.8	4.8
1951-52	163	161	2	10		42.2	52.8	5.0
1950-51	143	142	1	9		38.7	55.7	5.6
1949-50	141	138	3	9		32.6	61.6	5.8
1948-49	137	135	2	7		28.2	63.7	8.1
1947-48	133	129	4	13		22.5	67.4	10.1
1946-47	125	121	4	14		19.8	71.1	9.1
1945-46	123	115	8	14		17.4	73.0	9.6
1944-45	120	107	13	12		13.1	77.6	9.3
1943-44	104	93	11	10		12.9	74.2	12.9
1942-43	98	93	5	5		14.0	69.9	16.1
1941-42	98	93	5	6		15.0	71.0	14.0

*Percentages are based on data of column 3.

A comparison of Table I and Table II shows that junior high-school principals as a group have had considerably less educational background than principals of senior high schools. This is shown by each of the four levels of training noted. Among junior high-school principals there has been a substantially larger proportion of women than among principals of senior high schools.

Usable data on the educational backgrounds of principals of Negro high schools, both junior and senior high schools, are not available for as long a period as corresponding data regarding white schools. Table III presents data concerning principals of Negro senior high schools for the years 1941-42 to 1953-54.

A comparison of Table III with the corresponding years shown in Table I indicates a much smaller percentage of Negro than of white principals in senior high schools with the master's degree. Accordingly larger percentages of the Negro principals hold only the bachelor's degree—or no degree. A comparison of the bottom line of the two tables suggests that in 1941-42 the Negro principals had a level of training somewhat comparable to that of the white principals in 1928-29.

TABLE IV.—Number of Negro Junior High-School Principals Reported, and Percentage Distribution by Educational Background (For school years from 1940-41 to 1953-54).

School Year	Number of Principals			Percentage Distribution by Highest Degree Held*			
	Total	Ed. data Reported	No Ed. data Reported	Doctor's	Master's	Bachelor's	No Degree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1953-54	56	55	1	No Negro Jr. H. S. Prin. with a doctor's degree was revealed by the study	23.6	74.6	1.8
1952-53	58	57	1		19.3	77.2	3.5
1951-52	50	50	—		16.0	80.0	4.0
1950-51	48	48	—		16.7	77.1	6.2
1949-50	37	35	2		17.1	77.2	5.7
1948-49	35	32	3		15.6	71.9	12.5
1947-48	24	23	1		17.4	69.6	13.0
1946-47	20	19	1		10.5	68.4	21.1
1945-46	19	18	1		11.1	72.2	16.7
1944-45	20	16	4		6.2	68.8	25.0
1943-44	31	22	9		0.0	63.6	36.4
1942-43	28	22	6		0.0	68.2	31.8
1941-42	27	22	5		0.0	72.7	27.3
1940-41	22	19	3		0.0	79.0	21.0

*Percentages are based on data of column 3.

Table III suggests, particularly columns 7 and 8, that since 1941-42 the rate of upgrading among Negro principals has been more rapid than among white principals. Probably this is in part a reflection of salary equalizations. It is also in part a matter of arithmetic—when a group is a long distance from achieving a goal it is easier to show substantial percentage improvement or progress toward achieving it than when the group at the starting date has already covered much of the fairly easy preliminary ground.

By comparing columns 2 of Tables I and III, one can get some idea of the relative number of white and Negro senior high schools in the state. A comparison of column 4 of Table I with column 5 of Table III shows a larger proportion of women among Negro than among white principals. Relative economic appeal of teaching to women of the two races may be an explanatory factor in this connection.

Data on the educational backgrounds of principals in Negro junior high schools, without sex differentiation, appear in Table IV. A comparison of Tables II and IV shows that, with respect to educational backgrounds of junior high-school principals, the two races stand in about the same relationship as with respect to the educational backgrounds of principals in senior high schools. Much of what was said concerning

relative rate of upgrading in educational background of senior high-school principals applies to principals of junior high schools.

It is of interest that during the early 1940's there was a substantial increase in the percentage of principals in Negro junior high schools who had no college degree. No one of the other groups of principals studied showed a comparable increase during this period in percentage of the poorest qualified. It should be noted, however, that the percentages in Table IV which relate to this period are based on small numbers. Twenty-one of Alabama's sixty-seven counties had no Negro junior high school during the period 1940-41 to 1953-54.

RELATIONSHIP OF DEGREES HELD TO SCHOOL GRADES SUPERVISED

Although foregoing considerations show relationships between academic preparation of principals according to whether they are in junior or in senior high schools, educational organization is sufficiently varied that in one case the principal of a senior high school may not have the same grades under his jurisdiction as in another case. Hence, a further analysis was made of academic education of principals in relation to the specific grades supervised. Tables V and VI present data on this point regarding principals in white senior high schools.

A glance at Table V shows that the few principals with the doctor's degree, who are in white senior high schools, have gravitated toward schools organized on the basis of grades 9-12 (col. 6)—and the study revealed no man without any degree who was principal of such a school during the period considered (col. 21). A comparison of columns 11 and 16 shows that a considerably larger percentage of the master's-degree principals than of the bachelor's-degree principals is in schools with a 9-12 grade organization. Apparently this older type of high-school organization has considerable prestige in some Alabama communities, although Table VI (col. 12) indicates that the number of such schools is not large.

A comparison of columns 9 and 10 with columns 14 and 15 (Table V) shows a consistently larger percentage of the bachelor's-degree principals than of the master's-degree principals in charge of grade 1-12 schools. Since the 1947-48 school year there has, on the other hand, been a larger percentage of the master's-degree than of the bachelor's-degree principals in charge of grade 7-12 schools. The pattern before 1947-48, concerning 7-12 grade schools, is not clear. The foregoing relationships suggest that Alabama school boards think less academic preparation is needed for a principal to have charge of grades 1-12 than to have charge only of the upper segment of this span—grades 7-12. However, size of enrollment and other factors, on which available sources for this study included no data, are also important in employing principals.

Table VI shows the number of schools of different organizational patterns in which principals are considered as having supervision over senior high schools, and shows the distribution of principals in schools of each

TABLE V.—Distribution of White Male Senior High-School Principals According to Educational Background and Grades Supervised (For school years from 1941-42 to 1953-54).

Educational Background of Principals and Grades Supervised																						
Doctor's				Master's								Bachelor's								No Degree		
Total No. of Prins.	No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by School Grades Supervised				No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by School Grades Supervised				No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by School Grades Supervised				No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by School Grades Supervised					
		1-12	7-12	9-12	Other Org.*		1-12	7-12	9-12	Other Org.*		1-12	7-12	9-12	Other Org.*		1-12	7-12	9-12	Other Org.*		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
1953-54	333	5	40.0	20.0	40.0	0.0	256	69.2	19.5	8.6	2.7	71	78.9	18.3	1.4	1.4	1	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	
1952-53	334	3	33.3	0.0	66.7	0.0	249	66.7	21.3	8.4	3.6	80	82.5	15.0	1.25	1.25	2	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	
1951-52	333	3	0.0	0.0	66.7	33.3	230	65.7	22.2	8.3	3.8	97	85.6	12.4	1.0	1.0	3	33.3	66.7	0.0	0.0	
1950-51	336	2	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	213	63.8	23.5	8.9	3.8	118	85.6	11.9	0.8	1.7	3	33.3	66.7	0.0	0.0	
1949-50	334	1	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	209	63.2	21.5	8.6	6.7	120	79.2	15.0	1.7	4.1	4	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	
1948-49	336	1	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	201	62.2	21.9	9.0	6.9	127	77.2	17.3	1.6	3.9	7	57.1	28.6	0.0	14.3	
1947-48	339	1	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	199	63.3	22.1	8.5	6.1	132	77.3	16.7	1.5	4.5	7	71.4	14.3	0.0	14.3	
1946-47	340	2	50.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	196	64.8	20.9	7.7	6.6	136	70.6	22.1	2.9	4.4	6	66.7	16.7	0.0	16.7	
1945-46	343	2	50.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	192	64.1	21.4	7.8	6.7	144	69.4	22.2	2.8	5.6	5	40.0	20.0	0.0	40.0	
1944-45	343	3	33.3	33.3	33.3	0.0	182	63.2	22.0	6.6	8.2	152	69.7	22.4	2.6	5.3	6	33.3	33.3	0.0	33.3	
1943-44	343	1	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	190	62.6	20.0	6.3	11.1	145	66.9	23.4	3.4	6.3	7	57.1	14.3	0.0	28.6	
1942-43	345	1	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	196	63.3	21.9	6.6	8.2	143	69.2	21.7	2.8	6.3	5	40.0	0.0	0.0	60.0	
1941-42	244	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	208	63.5	23.1	6.3	7.1	132	68.9	20.5	3.8	6.8	4	25.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	

*Most of the schools in this category included either grades 8-12 or grades 10-12.

pattern according to the level of their academic training. This table (col. 13) shows more clearly than Table V that 9-12 grade schools are the only ones in which any significant percentage of the principals holds the doctor's degree. It is of interest that for every year represented by Table VI, with one exception, a larger percentage of the principals in the 9-12 grade school type. The exception concerns the "other grade organization" for 1952-53 (col. 19).

A comparison of columns 2, 7, 12, and 17 of Table VI suggests some decrease in number of schools with the 7-12 grade or the "other grade" organization from 1941-42 to 1953-54, with some increase in number of 1-12 grade and in 9-12 grade schools. These numerical changes should be considered in relation to the small over-all decrease in number of schools shown in column 1.

Data on white junior high schools, concerning the relationship between specific grades supervised and the educational background of principals, appear in Table VII. It is obvious from columns 4, 9, and 14 that most of the men who are classified as junior high-school principals are in charge of 1-9 grade schools. A comparison of these columns also shows that the lower the educational qualifications of principals, the larger the percentage of them who are in 1-9 grade schools. Column 3 shows a substantial increase in master's-degree principals during the period studied, as column 13 shows a substantial decrease in no-degree principals. In recent years there have been few if any principals without degrees serving in the separately organized junior high schools (7-8, 7-9, and "other").

Table VIII presents data on principals of Negro senior high schools according to grades supervised and educational background of principals. Column 3 of the table shows that more than four fifths of the men classified as senior high-school principals are in charge of schools which include grades 1-12, and shows that there has not been much change in this respect during the period covered. Throughout this period, more than half of the principals in the grade 1-12 schools have held no degree higher than the bachelor's (col. 9). However there has been a substantial net increase in percentage of principals in such schools who hold master's degrees, with net decrease in percentages of both no-degree principals and bachelors-degree principals.

Since only a small percentage of the principals shown by the table was in schools having an organization other than that of grades 1-12, no effort was made to study the educational background of principals in the other schools by type of school supervised.

A separate tabulation was made for white senior high schools in separate city school systems for the period 1941-42 to 1953-54. During this period, the number of schools involved varied from 38 to 45. Variations in number of schools within different grade spans for which principals had administrative responsibility were as follows: 1-12 grade schools, from 1 to 6; 7-12 grade schools, from 15 to 18; 8-12 grade schools, from 1 to 4; 9-12 grade

TABLE VII.—Distribution of White Male Junior High-School Principals According to Educational Background and Grades Supervised (For the school years from 1941-42 to 1953-54).

School Years	Total Prins. Giving Data on Ed.*	Educational Background of Principals and Grades Supervised														
		Master's					Bachelor's					No Degree				
		No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by Grades Supervised				No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by Grades Supervised				No. of Prins.	Pct. Distribution by Grades Supervised			
			1-9	7-8	7-9	Other		1-9	7-8	7-9	Other		1-9	7-8	7-9	Other
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1953-54	203	89	79.8	6.7	7.9	5.6	95	84.2	3.2	1.0	11.6	19	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1952-53	202	78	76.9	6.4	10.3	6.4	99	85.9	4.0	0.0	10.1	25	96.0	0.0	0.0	4.0
1951-52	199	77	76.6	5.2	9.1	9.4	92	82.6	7.6	0.0	9.8	30	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1950-51	187	69	76.6	5.0	6.7	11.7	102	84.3	6.9	2.9	5.9	25	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1949-50	187	58	79.3	1.7	10.4	8.6	99	82.8	6.1	3.0	8.1	30	96.7	0.0	0.0	3.3
1948-49	195	53	79.3	1.9	9.4	9.4	106	84.9	4.7	2.8	7.6	36	91.7	0.0	2.8	5.5
1947-48	191	42	76.2	0.0	11.9	11.9	110	83.7	4.5	3.6	3.2	39	87.2	0.0	2.5	10.3
1946-47	191	41	73.2	0.0	14.6	12.2	102	85.3	4.9	2.9	6.9	48	93.7	0.0	2.1	4.2
1945-46	188	38	76.3	0.0	15.8	7.9	101	87.2	4.9	3.0	4.9	49	89.8	0.0	4.1	6.1
1944-45	188	42	73.8	0.0	16.7	9.5	110	81.8	5.5	3.6	9.1	36	91.7	0.0	2.8	5.5
1943-44	190	44	77.3	2.3	15.9	4.5	109	78.9	4.6	3.7	12.8	37	91.9	0.0	2.7	5.4
1942-43	184	46	73.9	4.4	15.2	6.5	106	81.2	2.8	2.8	13.2	32	84.5	3.1	6.2	6.2
1941-42	184	46	73.9	2.2	15.2	8.7	101	79.2	3.0	3.0	14.8	37	83.8	2.7	5.4	8.1

*Data in this column are same as in col. 3, Table II.

TABLE VIII.—Distribution of Negro Male Senior High-School Principals According to Grades Supervised, and Distribution According to Educational Background of Principals in 1-12 Grade Schools (For school years from 1941-42 to 1953-54).

School Year	Number of Principals and Percentage Distribution by Specific Grades Supervised						Percentage Distribution of Principals in Grade 1-12 Schools According to Educational Background			
	Percentage Distribution by Grades Supervised						Master	Bachelor	No Degree	Nos. on Which Pct. Are Based**
	No. of Prins.*	1-12	7-12	8-12	9-12	Other				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1953-54	178	83.7	7.9	3.9	2.8	1.7	41.6	53.7	4.7	149
1952-53	170	83.5	7.1	3.5	3.5	2.4	42.1	52.2	5.7	140
1951-52	163	84.7	9.2	1.8	3.7	0.6	39.7	54.4	5.9	136
1950-51	143	81.1	9.8	2.8	3.5	2.8	34.8	58.3	6.9	115
1949-50	141	82.3	8.5	2.8	2.8	3.6	28.3	64.6	7.1	113
1948-49	137	81.0	8.8	2.9	1.5	5.8	24.8	66.1	9.1	109
1947-48	133	82.7	8.3	3.0	1.5	4.5	18.9	69.8	11.3	106
1946-47	125	80.8	8.0	3.2	1.6	6.4	14.3	75.5	10.2	98
1945-46	123	84.6	5.7	2.4	2.4	4.9	12.5	77.1	10.4	96
1944-45	120	85.8	6.7	0.8	2.5	4.2	10.0	78.9	11.1	90
1943-44	104	83.7	4.8	1.9	1.9	7.7	10.5	76.3	13.2	76
1942-43	98	80.6	6.1	2.0	2.0	9.2	13.5	70.3	16.2	74
1941-42	98	80.6	6.1	2.0	2.0	9.2	13.5	70.3	16.2	74

*Data in this column are same as in col. 2, Table III.

**Educational data were not available on a few principals. Hence, the figures shown in col. 11 may not equal the figure obtained by applying the per cents of col. 3 to the data of col. 2.

schools, from 11 to 20; 10-12 grade schools, from 2 to 7. The most consistent pattern of change was an increase in 9-12 grade schools—accompanied by a less consistent decrease in 8-12 grade and in 10-12 grade schools. The number of principals in white city senior high schools who held master's degrees varied from 29 to 46; the number with bachelor's degrees, from 2 to 9; and the number with doctor's degrees from 0 to 2.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

1. Available data make it possible to study backgrounds of white principals over a longer period of time than backgrounds of Negro principals. This fact may reflect a more systematic organization and administration of the white schools for a longer period.

2. Principals in charge of senior high schools, both races, have a considerably higher average level of degree education than principals whose

administrative and supervisory responsibilities do not extend beyond the junior high-school level. Perhaps tradition partly explains this situation—as it relates to both principals and teachers. One factor involved is the idea that teaching and administrative work at the higher grade levels of our public schools is more difficult than work at lower grade levels and, therefore, demands more training and should command more pay. Another factor is a lingering dualism which we inherited from Europe and which still manifests itself in our school practice if not in educational theory—that the elementary schools are intended for the popular masses, but high schools and colleges are for the upper classes. The high level of education shown by Table VI for principals who serve in schools with the somewhat traditional 9-12 grade organization, relative to that shown for principals who serve in the more usual 1-12 grade or 7-12 grade schools, substantiates the point indicated. It is perhaps too early to predict the effect that salary equalization for service at different school levels will have on the relative educational backgrounds of principals or teachers who work at different school levels, or the effect of the emphasis placed on child development and school-home relationships in the upgraded preparation of staff members for service at the lower grade levels in contrast with greater emphasis on subject matter for service at the upper levels.

3. The comments in paragraph "2" on the higher degree qualifications of principals in senior than in junior high schools apply to both white and Negro schools. Tradition and dualism in other respects help explain the substantially lower level of preparation of Negro than of white principals—in both senior and junior high schools.

4. Educational tradition is perhaps also involved in the small number of women principals—both races. This situation may be of particular interest in view of the large proportion of women on the teaching staffs of most schools. Family pattern and home responsibility, social conceptions of sex status regarding who should supervise whom, sex as a factor in relationships with school boards or with laymen and civic groups, as well as extent of professional training and continuity of service are probably among the factors which explain this situation.

5. The substantial improvement in teacher preparation which has taken place in Alabama during the short period covered by this study has probably been duplicated or exceeded in many states. It must be recognized that degree preparation alone is not an infallible index of teaching or administrative competence. However such preparation is useful as a rough indicator. It is probably true also that during the past decade the content of degree training has been improved substantially—from the standpoint of preparing teachers and administrators who are competent to deal with problems which confront the public schools. There is justification for encouragement in the improvement which has taken place in the educational backgrounds of Alabama high-school principals during the period studied.

6. This improvement and encouragement should be made the basis for confidence and experimentation in attack on the larger problems that lie ahead in developing the educational and productive resources of the state and nation, rather than a basis for complacency or "mutual admiration" because of recent achievements. It is largely through persistent and insightful attack on educational problems that the state and nation can progress in developing its most important resources—the skills and competencies of the people.

WORLD ATLAS

Hammond's Ambassador World Atlas. Maplewood, N. J.: C. S. Hammond and Company. 1956. 416 pp. \$12.50. It is imperative for all in these changing times to keep abreast of world events! In order to do this, an atlas is as essential as newspaper, radio, or television. But to be 100 per cent serviceable, the atlas should be completely new, completely designed for modern conditions. This atlas locates every spot on the face of the earth and tells you everything you want to know about the world—its lands and peoples, its climate, resources, etc. The geographic perfection of this collection of 326 maps and the editorial accuracy and completeness of detail result from co-operation of Hammond experts and American and foreign government agencies throughout the world.

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The Southern High School Principal

SAM P. WIGGINS

THIS article is not an essay on the rightness or wrongness of the 1954-55 decisions of the Supreme Court on segregation. After taking the step of thinking through the issue itself, wherever this step leads them, southern high-school principals must next take a long second step. They must determine their official and personal roles in schools and communities regarding the desegregation issues itself. This article deals with that difficult second step.

While southern principals are defining their leadership roles, their non-south colleagues may profit directly from their efforts because, in a fundamental sense, the basic question is bigger than the present issue. It is the question of the principal's role on controversial matters generally about which citizens reflect strong and diverse feelings. The present topic simply furnishes us with a vehicle, a timely case for study, with far reaching implications.

How should a southern principal define his own role with reference to the desegregation issue? He needs, of course, to get acquainted with the major relevant facts surrounding the issue. He is helped, too, in knowing generally how his colleagues feel and why they feel and think as they do. Finally, the principal can profit from a personal study of viewpoints of others as a help toward sharpening his own thinking, arriving at, and validating his own position. This article deals with these three areas by presenting some elemental facts, by describing how some principals feel and by presenting a personal viewpoint to challenge the reader's own thinking.

FACING SOME FACTS

The job of determining what facts are most relevant in analyzing the issue of segregation is a tremendous and subjective one. The few facts about to be mentioned may not be the most important ones. They simply suggest the areas of information about which the southern high-school principal needs to keep himself informed. The topic areas referred to are the courts, the social scene, the high school as a special case, and the high-school principal.

The Courts

The Supreme Court's basic decisions can be expressed simply. (a) The segregation of the public schools, on the basis of race, is unconstitutional.

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(b) Local communities are permitted and required to think through the how and when of accomplishing desegregation (c) Each community shall proceed through a "prompt and reasonable start" with "deliberate speed," "practical flexibility," and demonstrate "good faith (1)." Whether a community moves slow or fast and the manner in which it moves are its own affair. The legally constituted umpire, the Supreme Court, whether rightly or wrongly, has said to move.

The courts are not powerless, although evasive action and stalling tactics will work for a long time. The separate but equal doctrine, though proclaimed in the Plessy vs. Ferguson case of 1896, has still not been fully translated into practice. One legal authority, along with former Justice Jackson, sees at least a generation of litigation from the 1954-55 decisions. This does not gainsay the power of the courts despite the bravado challenges that "the courts have made the decision; not let them enforce it." They can enforce it, of course. District courts can invoke contempt powers to secure obedience. The courts can jail or fine recalcitrant individuals and, since there is no maximum for such punishment, the judge can keep piling it on until he is assured of compliance by officials (2). To recall our baseball analogy, a "rhubarb" can stall the umpire for awhile, but when he says "you're out," you're out. If you protest enough, you are out of the game. If you continue to persist, you are out of the park—even though he may have actually miscalled the decision.

The Social Scene

White folks are a minority group. Although it is difficult for the untraveled American to think of himself in this way, it is important in terms of international relations to recognize that the majority group in America is the minority group in the world at large—a half billion whites and three times that many people of color on this planet. What this means in our society is a matter for considerable conjecture. We are advised from some quarters that the Supreme Court decision was Communist inspired. Others attempt to persuade us, on the contrary, that the decision strikes a devastating blow to the Communistic propaganda line, that we preach equality and practice oppression of colored minority groups. However we look at it, what happens to Negroes in the United States is of direct concern to persons of color—three fourths of the earth's population around the world. No local community lives completely to itself—not any more.

The schools have no monopoly on the segregation problem. Some of us may have thought earlier of the segregation problem as pertaining strictly to the public schools. Yet in this fast moving social upheaval, we find a broken front action toward the abolition of segregation that cuts across the whole of American public life. Organized religion, transportation, housing, the armed forces, public parks, and other recreational facilities illustrate the point. The schools are not operating in a vacuum. The matter of desegregation is community-wide.

Desegregation is already accomplished, and without the predicted mass violence. In September 1955, 130,000 Negroes enrolled in desegregated schools in eight states and in Washington, D. C., all of which formerly practiced segregation (3). This is not the first major instance in which widespread violence seems to have been wrongly predicted. The enfranchisement of more than a million southern Negroes by 1952 is another case in point (4).

There is no distinctly southern position on desegregation. This fact was evident from the beginning of the present crisis as the southern governors failed to reach agreement about whether they should implement or attempt to circumvent the Supreme Court decision. Even among those agreeing on circumvention as a course of action there was wide diversity as to method. As this is written in 1956, four southern states have agreed to explore the doctrine of "interposition" as a new angle of circumvention.

Not only are there several Souths from state to state regarding this issue, but there are numerous Souths within the several southern states, depending largely on the population ratios of whites and Negroes. North Carolina provides a representative illustration. The 1950 census revealed that nine North Carolina counties then had a Negro population majority. Twenty-seven counties in this same state, by sharp contrast, had a Negro population of less than ten per cent. The remaining fifty-four counties varied between these two extreme groups (5). Decisions about acting on the Supreme Court's decision are obviously conditioned by the practical effects of those decisions. It is not difficult to see, then, why "southern" points of view differ radically even within a single state conditioned by the practical local effects of decisions regarding desegregation.

Not all southerners are hyper-sensitive to criticism from the non-south. Some southerners, however, are. This sensitivity is not exclusively a southern trait. Von Simmel's concept of the "stranger"—that the outsider tends to be viewed with some suspicion and kept at considerable social distance—is confirmed by anthropologists universally. Criticism from outsiders, from "strangers" of sorts, is difficult for most of us to take. More important than the source of the criticism may be its nature and intent. All of us tend to be more receptive to criticism that reflects the qualities of empathy and respect than that which smacks of intolerant condescension. Geographical location has little to do with this generalization.

The southern white faces a personally disorganizing split in loyalties. The late Howard Odum, an eminent sociologist and student of southern culture, expressed the southern white credo about Negroes in this way, "The Negro is a Negro and nothing more." With this culturally inherited point of view, coupled with an experience limited to association with uneducated Negroes, a strong mind set develops almost inevitably among many southern whites to keep the Negro in "his place." The other loyalty, and Odum makes the case a strong one, is a loyalty to the credo in the name of freedom, Americanism, and the pursuit of happiness (6). The southern white who is genuinely torn between these two loyalties needs

understanding and patient help, but not over-protection against a changing reality, as he thinks and feels his way through his disturbing dilemma.

You can get the facts—STRAIGHT. A not widely enough known and used publication, the *Southern School News*, will keep you posted in as factual and objective a manner as is humanly possible. This publication, commended by leaders taking conflicting positions on the issue, should be available for use by teachers, parents, principals, high-school students, and school board members throughout the South (7).

The High School

The high school has much in common with elementary schools and institutions of higher education as it faces the desegregation problem. There is a need for articulation and collective action from grade one through the highest level of public education. Despite the thread of common elements of the problem, however, the high school presents, in three major respects, a case all its own.

School community relationships are different on the high-school level from that of the elementary school. Youngsters have cut themselves away from the close home ties that marked their earlier years. While the elementary school teacher, for example, needs to know from thirty to forty sets of parents, the high-school teacher is in daily contact with pupils of a hundred fifty or more sets of parents. The less cohesive school-community relationship on the high-school level suggests a different case entirely from that of its elementary counterpart. Public relation strategy must be based on this difference.

Youth are struggling with new "developmental tasks" highly significant with reference to the desegregation problem. In the elementary school, children are rather easily convinced that what teachers and parents say about right and wrong must be taken at face value. They live in a world of simple values. Their consciences emerge as a kind of projected image of the values held by their parents and guardians.

Adolescents, far more than children, are working at the task of achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults (8). During the adolescent period, pupils are interested and able to think through social problems more maturely than ever before. Simple answers to "why?" no longer satisfy them. Adolescents can be helped to do a lot of truly independent analytical thinking about matters of morality. Pat answers of parents and teachers no longer suffice.

High-school leaders are working with youngsters at a time when they are uniquely ready for a constructive study of inter-cultural life. This is very likely their most genuinely teachable moment on these fundamental human issues. Danger and opportunity live together in this challenge. The problem of desegregation becomes compounded on the high-school level because youngsters of this age are achieving sexual maturity and are preparing in a variety of ways for marriage and family life. Thus the high school becomes the focal point for the almost panicky fear in some adults

of racial inter-marriage. It is here that the emotional nature of the desegregation problem reaches its boiling point. In this respect, as in the others, the high school presents a case all its own.

The High-School Principal

Some high-school principals worry unduly about a weight that is not on their shoulders at all. The principal is not a basic policy maker. The board of education makes school policy about desegregation as about other fundamental policy matters. The superintendent administers, with his best judgment, the policies handed down to him by the school board. The principal is charged only with attempting to make policies work, of executing them. He may work through proper channels to have them changed, but he cannot defy them. If he cannot in good conscience execute the policy of his immediate employers, it is his professional responsibility to tender his resignation or, if he chooses, contest the legality of policy in the courts.

The principal is a citizen, too. He enjoys the rights and responsibilities of all other citizens except as legally abridged by his employer, the school board. Thus as a citizen, but not as a principal, a high-school principal may work in what he conceives to be community interest so long as he does not directly carry his citizenship privileges into his professional office. This fact applies to activity about desegregation as well as to any other controversial matter of civic interest.

HOW PRINCIPALS FEEL

Now we take a long jump from facts to opinions, first about how principals feel. They reflect a wide variety of feelings, to be sure, about their proper roles regarding desegregation. Since feelings are rooted in direct personal experiences, it is natural that this should be so and that these feelings may not be substantially changed except through new experiences.

In a recent bi-racial work conference for high-school principals from eleven states, nine of them southern, significant attitudinal changes took place as a kind of by-product. The conference did not list desegregation initially as a major topic. Yet attitudes about principals' roles were being modified. This was the first bi-racial conference for some of its members. For all of them the experience had an element of newness and significance. Principals came to grips with common problems in the areas of school management, of improving instruction, and of school-community relations. Desegregation emerged naturally as a significant discussion topic in this latter category.

Feelings of Negro and white principals changed during this experience, not about the rightness or wrongness of the Supreme Court decision perhaps, but toward a fuller acceptance of all conference members as individuals rather than as group stereotypes. One of the Negro principals, at the end of the conference, confided to the group of his initial hesitancy about coming to the conference, fearing that he might be kept at considerable social distance on the one hand, or be treated in an overly sympa-

thetic manner on the other. He expressed a deep gratification at being agreed with and argued with as "an individual." He spoke with conviction and with good effect about his increased faith in the ability of high school leaders in the South to learn to work together as professionals, without permitting racial barriers to block their joint leadership effectiveness.

A white principal volunteered the information to this writer that this was his first experience with, as he put it, "genuinely educated Negroes." He gained a new respect for the educational potential of Negroes and developed a stronger feeling of responsibility to work with people as individuals. An interesting afterthought was that, "I knew from my prior studies that no race was naturally superior to another, but I could never *believe what I knew* until now." Thus is illustrated how our intellect sometimes plays second fiddle to our feelings.

It is difficult to say how this group of principals felt about their respective roles as citizens and educational leaders regarding desegregation. Yet, I should like to hazard the guess that true consensus was reached on at least these points.

1. The principal needs to be sensitive to the view of the entire community about desegregation, not simply to the community's power structure. Without being nosy, he needs to get insight into the genuine bases for these views.

2. The principal is an executive official for the board of education. If he cannot "stomach" school board policy or change it through direct persuasion or through his influence as a citizen, he has the moral responsibility to resign.

3. There are already degrees of segregation within all schools of kinds other than racial. Social class consciousness, for example, is reflected in many ways. The principal should constantly work at actually integrating his present students body—breaking down preferential treatment, snobbery, catering to VIP pressurers and the like.

4. The principal needs to work at establishing straight lines of communications of facts and ideas—hammering out solutions to problems with diverse groups around the table rather than permitting problems to magnify themselves in the rumor factory.

5. As a leader of discussion, the good principal avoids the tendency to get into the controversy himself. He must furnish stability and direction to discussion and know that, if he exercises himself over controversial matters, he loses his potential for genuine long-term leadership.

6. As a citizen, he knows that he has all of the rights and responsibilities of other citizens except as legally abridged by the school board. He does not act, or fail to act, through fear or intimidation, but from the dictates of his conscience, avoiding errors of hasty action and those of postponing needed action for the sake of personal comfort.

7. As a professional leader, the principal sees himself as more of a minister than an evangelist. His is not the way of dramatically swaying and stirring his community, but of serving them as a leader of independent thinking citizens, helping them to see the possible courses of school-community action open to them and the likely consequences of these alternatives.

THE PRINCIPAL'S SCOREBOARD

"If he (the teacher) is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind." Gibran, *The Prophet*.

No true leader tries to tell others what they should think on matters of a controversial nature. Rather, to those who may be interested, he may stir thinking by revealing his own. This writer's opinions are presented in a kind of nine-inning scoreboard reflecting his views about the principal's role concerning desegregation. High-school principals are encouraged to construct their own individual scoreboards, and keep on themselves. It is in this spirit that the principals' scoreboard is presented.

YES

NO

- | | | |
|------|------|--|
| | | 1. Am I keeping myself well posted on the desegregation problem outside of public education as well as within it? |
| | | 2. Am I continually examining the fundamental issues, and my feeling about them, rather than making snap judgment on complicated problems and then closing my mind to other possibilities? |
| | | 3. Am I aware of and sensitive to feelings in my local community at large rather than only to noisy pressure groups and to the community power structure? |
| | | 4. Do I, as appropriate, provide for all citizens acting in good faith to come to grips with the total problem? |
| | | 5. Do I "minister" to my community in establishing information sources and lines of communication rather than act as an "evangelist" trying to convert all people to my own beliefs? |
| | | 6. Am I deliberate and resolute in my actions without getting "worked up" unduly? |
| | | 7. As a principal, do I work toward needed policy changes as I see them in a straight-forward manner to the school board through proper channels? |
| | | 8. As a principal, do I bend my best efforts toward a democratic integration of my present student body, taking a firm stand against all forms of preferential treatment based on social class or community VIP's? |
| | | 9. Does the courage of my fundamental professional convictions rise above immediate self-interest? In short, is the courage of my basic convictions stronger than the desire to hold my present job, if such a test comes? |

As a timely afterthought, isn't this scoreboard as suitable for principals in the non-South as in the South? Isn't it appropriate, too, for matters other than the present desegregation crisis? If so, the principal should not think of his role about the desegregation issue as something uniquely set apart. His responsibility here is just another related part of his total leadership job.

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SICKMAN, LAURENCE, and ALEXANDER SOPER. *The Art and Architecture of China*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, Inc. 1956. 362 pp. \$8.50. The volume deals with the evolution of painting, sculpture, and architecture in China from the Shang Dynasty, nearly 2,000 years before Christ, to the end of the Ch'ing Dynasty early in the present century. Traditionalism has played a dominant role in the art of the Chinese who possess the longest continuous cultural history of any race. This fact is emphasized by both authors, Mr. Sickman in Part One (Painting and Sculpture) and Professor Soper in Part Two (Architecture). They also show how lasting influences has been exerted over Chinese art and architecture by such religious and philosophical ideals as the decorum and restraint of the Confucians, and the escapism of the Taoists, for instance. Nor can the importance of Buddhism be underestimated, as it provided a suitable setting against which painting, sculpture, and architecture could be and were treated as a single concept. Especially significant also was the vitality imparted to all fields of art by conditions of material safety and prosperity such as those enjoyed under the Han and the T'ang. The text is illustrated by over 40 line drawings and 192 pages of half-tone illustrations.

The Functions of Secondary Education

J. RUSSELL MORRIS

FROM time to time it is well to take an inventory of what we are attempting to accomplish in our present-day secondary schools. In terms of scientific progress, social evolution, and the changes in geo-politics, the secondary school faces a herculean task never confronted by any other era in the development of our country; namely, preparing young people to compete and survive in a world torn by two direct opposite ideologies. With this in mind, we might venture to set down what should be the functions of the modern present-day secondary school. If we as teacher practice the following principles, we cannot help but teach our youth to become the priests and prophets of unborn tomorrows.

1. *Integration*—Schools have the function of integrating students with each other and with society for the reason that no other agency can do it as well and completely as the school. In our society young people should become social-minded, should acquire a background of ideals and experiences, and should know how to co-operate effectively to obtain and realize these ideals and worth-while experiences.

2. *Satisfaction of Needs*—To satisfy the important and immediate and probable future needs of students is paramount insofar as the maturity of the learner permits. The needs of young people should form the curriculum.

3. *Revelation of the Racial Heritage*—So completely is man dependent on the past that loss of his cultural heritage would mean the collapse of civilization. It becomes the proper function of the school to acquaint young people with the materials of living, to make full use of the heritage which is theirs, and to lead them in activities which can serve the best interests of society.

4. *Systematization and Application of Knowledge*—If a general body of knowledge is systematized, fact being built upon fact, until general principles or conclusions stand out in sharp relief, the learner will acquire the habit of organization and the perception of true relationships.

5. *Exploration of Interests, Aptitudes, and Capacities*—The teacher should find out what students are most interested in and what they can do best. They should then be led into studies and activities which will spur them on along the lines for which they are best prepared through natural talents or acquired interests.

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6. *Establishment and Direction of Interests*—Interests make the world meaningful to the student and leads him on to the acquisition of more knowledge. Social progress is dependent upon the acquisition of diversified interests. It is the function of the secondary school to extent, develop, and redirect these interests so that students grow continuously and harmously.

7. *Guidance*—Guidance is to assist the student to respond happily and readily to his environment, to help each individual find the thing he is best fitted to do. A diversified course of study is not enough. We need testing, grading, control, organization, and administration to make guidance services actually serve the needs of all the students.

8. *Methods of Teaching and Learning*—The high school brings to a close the formal education (schooling) for the majority of citizens. It should, therefore, so prepare young people that they will continue their education and engage in independent thought. Thus, the chief work of the teacher actually becomes one of practical and functional guidance.

9. *Differentiation*—There are certain educational needs common to all boys and girls. In order to meet these needs, much of the curriculum of the secondary school is in the nature of general education. However, there are also individual needs that should not be overlooked nor neglected. It is essential that the high school operate on a diversified program in order to insure the variety needed to meet the needs of secondary-school youth.

10. *Retention*—The secondary school should provide an opportunity for all of its students to profit from its services. It is the duty of the school then to retain these young people until their work is completed; that is, until they are either ready for higher education or employment, or until they cannot or will not profit from continued attendance at school.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

The 41st Annual Convention
of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
will be held in Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

Practices of High Schools in the Management of Concessions

LLOYD E. McCANN

THE management of concession sales at public events, school sessions, and school social events is a continuing problem for high-school administrators. Concession projects are stimulated by the need for money to support student activities, the possibility of profits from concession sales, and the demand for concession service. The great majority of high schools have concession projects of some kind or another, and their continuing success depends up effective management.

In order to learn what actual management practices are, a checklist was prepared and interviews were conducted with administrators in convenient Indiana high schools. Subsequently, a short questionnaire was prepared and submitted to principals of comparable high schools in seven other states to insure that the findings in Indiana did not represent rather localized practices.

The present description of management practices represents information from eighty-three high schools. The sample included both public and private high schools, located in both urban and rural areas, and ranging in enrollment from twenty-eight pupils to more than 4,600. The median high school enrolled 331 pupils. No significantly different patterns of practice were noted among the 45 Indiana high schools in the sample as compared to the reports from the 38 high schools in other states. Variations in practice related to other factors are noted in the discussion.

The amount of profits (and/gross business) resulted from concession projects justifies attention to good management. A summary of the profits reported by the high schools for the school year 1953-54 is reported in the following table. Since most managers indicate that profits approach 100 per cent on concession sales, total sales should approximate twice the profit figure. Thus the school reporting the greatest profit (approximately \$15,000) would have operated a thirty thousand dollar concession business. This is an exceptional case, but other schools in the present study indicate sales approaching a ten thousand dollar mark. These projects require (and actually receive) business-like management. The smaller profits reported by smaller schools are no less important to those schools.

CONCESSION PRACTICES

Plans for operating concessions vary considerably from school to school, depending upon the nature of the buildings, the attitudes of the school

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**AMOUNT OF NET PROFIT REPORTED FROM CONCESSION
SALES BY 83 SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS, 1953-54**

<i>Amount of Net Profit</i>	<i>High Schools Enrolling</i>				<i>Totals</i>
	<i>1 - 99 pupils</i>	<i>100 - 499 pupils</i>	<i>500 - 999 pupils</i>	<i>1,000 or more pupils</i>	
\$1 - \$499	8	10	4	1	23
\$ 500 - \$999		12	3	1	16
\$1,000 - \$1,499		4	4	4	12
\$1,500 - \$1,999		5	3	2	10
\$2,000 or more			1	7	8
Not known	1	2	1		4
Not reported	2	4		4	10
TOTALS	11	37	16	19	83

staff, and the expectations of the community. However, certain management features are commonly repeated by schools with similar programs or similar local situations.

In one group of schools there is a minimum of administrative control over concessions. The opportunity for concession sales is allocated to a number of high-school student organizations. Thus the senior class may sell at the first athletic game, the dramatic club at the second game, and other organizations are scheduled in turn. The faculty sponsor for each organization supervises the concession sales. These sponsors differ in their ability to supervise sales, since they are usually chosen for their ability to supervise the regular activities of the organization.

Concessions are sold at student snack bars, concession stands, and by vendors who circulate among the crowds. Trustworthy and extroverted students are recruited as salesmen, but there is typically little check of individual students for either honesty or sales efficiency.

Profits from the sales of concessions are used to finance the regular activities of each individual organization. Each organization plans its own activities, and so long as bills are paid and activities follow familiar patterns, the administrator may know little about either sales practices or the use made of concession profits. Four administrators stated that they had no information as to the total profits from concession sales.

The schools using another pattern of management assign concession rights to a particular school organization. These are most frequently the senior class, junior class, or Pep club (cheering organization.) Sales practices are much like those described for the first group.

In cases where the senior class operates the concessions, profits are usually used for class activities. These include the usual run of social activities for the senior class, the yearbook (if a senior class project), or a class

gift to the school. The most frequent specific use of profits by senior classes is to finance the senior trip.

When the junior class conducts sales, profits are usually used to finance the Junior-Senior Banquet or Prom. In a few cases the class retains the profits until the senior year and then uses them to finance its own senior trip or other class activities.

The Pep Club is usually given concession rights in small schools in rural areas. This organization may use profits to entertain visiting athletic teams—especially in communities where the visitors might not find a convenient restaurant for a post-game lunch. Frequently, cheering organizations give a post-season banquet for athletic teams. Funds are also used for such expenses as membership emblems and awards, cheer-leader costumes, or cheering section travel expenses to out-of-town games.

In a third management pattern, concession sales are conducted for the benefit of the high school as a whole. A concession manager (usually a faculty member) is selected for his competence in managing business activities and is assigned this responsibility as his principal extraclass duty. Since this is a business activity, he may be paid for his services. The manager may direct concessions sales directly, he may conduct sales in behalf of the student council, or he may be the sponsor of a Concessions Club which has a status comparable to other high-school clubs and performs a service function for the entire school. In any case, the concession manager may organize a regular sales force which is used game after game rather than rotate selling assignment among students as is customary under other plans.

Profits from the operation are used for whole-school interests. Ordinarily the profits are allocated to school projects on the basis of need and desirability. Funds may be allocated by the administrator alone, by the student council, or by a student-faculty-administrator committee. Funds may be used for subsidization of the school yearbook, payment for school assembly programs, travel to contests, or for the purchase of permanent school equipment such as public address systems, choir robes, or electric scoreboards.

A number of concession management plans do not fit into the general patterns described. For example, four large high schools report that sales are conducted by some adult group such as the Parent Teacher's Association which turns the profits over to the high-school authorities. Three others lease all concessions to commercial firms, and six additional schools report that they lease concessions for games played in facilities that are rented or located at some distance from the main schools plant. In such cases, the school receives a percentage (10 or 15 per cent) of the net profits. The concessionaire usually hires high-school students who work for him on commission, but who are reluctant to work as volunteers for the school. Only one school reports that students who work in school-operated concession projects are paid.

In a number of cases, concession profits are used for a broader range of purposes. They are sometimes used to buy sales equipment such as re-

frigerators and cash registers. Three schools report that profits are used automatically to purchase athletic equipment and maintain athletic fields. Three others reported that profits from concessions were used to supplement the regular school budget in buying school supplies, purchasing library books, paying travel expenses, or paying incidental expenses.

RECOMMENDED PROCEDURES

From this review of current practices, it is possible to propose certain workable principles which should govern the management of concessions. It is apparent, in the first place, that the management of concessions represents a rather discrete problem. Concession sales constitute a business enterprise, entered in primarily for profit—often to make money for a particular purpose.

As a business enterprise, concession operation should be judged by such business principles as are properly applicable to a project conducted by a school. Concessions need not provide adequate funds for a school activity program—indeed the potential may not exist. But concession sales should show a reasonable return for the capital and effort invested, and adequate records should be kept to show the results of current operation and to permit future planning.

Sales practices should be designed to promote another objective—to give students desirable business experience. The chief decision is whether to rotate selling assignments among a large number of students or give more intensive experience to a small group. Better sales promotion and better control of sanitation are possible with the small group. On the other hand, it may be desirable to spread sales experience among more students. In either case, minimum checks for sales efficiency and honesty of individual students should be made to guarantee that the experiences students receive will be desirable ones.

Discretion should be used in deciding how to use the profits from sales. In one sense, all school funds are trust funds for the careful expenditure of which there is a public interest. The use of all profits for investment in capital items deprives the present students of some of the benefits of their own efforts. On the other hand, it is possible to dissipate the effectiveness of income by dividing it among too many consumption expenditures such as banquets, trips, and awards. Some balance should be maintained between these alternatives.

Finally, concession projects are a sensitive point of contact between the school and the various publics—the student body, the parents, taxpayers, and citizens generally. Good public relations is promoted if regular, dependable, clean, reasonably priced service is available for the patrons of school functions. The management of concessions should be conducted in such a way that the public generally is convinced that the buyer gets value received for his money, the school gets a reasonable profit for its efforts, the money is carefully accounted for, and sound judgment is exercised in utilizing the profits.

Contractual Relationships in Pupil Transportation

HAROLD H. PUNKE

SEVERAL recent cases¹ have dealt with contractual relationships involved in transporting children to and from schools. Most of these cases have concerned persons who provide or drive transportation vehicles for the district, or parent who seek reimbursement for transporting their own children.

METHOD OF CONTRACTING FOR TRANSPORTATION

A Montana controversy² related to the need for competitive bidding in letting transportation contracts. Two statutory provisions were involved. Chapter 152 provided: "Before contracts are awarded to a common carrier, the board shall secure bids, by publishing a call for bids. . . ." Chapter 152 also provided: "except that when transportation is furnished by a carrier, the contract shall be signed by the district clerk, the chairman of the school board, and by the carrier." Section 1016 (1935 code) provided: "No board of trustees shall let any contract for building, furnishing, repairing, or other work, for the benefit of the district, where the amount involved is two hundred and fifty dollars, or more, without first advertising in a newspaper . . . calling for bids to perform such work. . . ." A common carrier objected to the district awarding a transportation contract to a private carrier without competitive bidding. One contention was that section 1016 required competitive bidding for all contracts, including those for pupil transportation, if the amount involved exceeded \$250. In rejecting this contention the court said that the words "building, furnishing, repairing," do not include pupil transportation, and that the general words "or other work" were limited to the same kinds of things as the preceding specific words "building, furnishing, repairing." Similarly the phrase "furnishing of supplies," used elsewhere in section 1016, could not be considered to include pupil transportation. When it was contended that chapter 152 was intended to include all carriers, as distinguished from parents or

¹In 1943 the author published *Law and Liability in Pupil Transportation* (University of Chicago Press, 291 pgs). Chapters iv and v summarize all the cases, on the subject indicated by the title of this article, which had been reported from the higher state and Federal courts when the manuscript went to press. This article summarizes all cases on the subject which have been reported from such courts since then.

²*In re Transportation of School Children* (Supreme Ct., 1945), 161 P. (2nd.) 901, rehearing denied.

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guardians, the court said that a common carrier "holds himself out to take goods, chattels, or persons for hire for all persons indiscriminately, as distinguished from a carrier who agrees by special agreement or contract to transport persons or property from one place to another." The majority of the court held that bids were required only of common carriers. One judge dissented, maintaining that "other work" included pupil transportation.

Dispute in the Rankin case³ related to adequacy of advertising to permit competitive bidding on a transportation contract. Bids from the same two bidders were submitted in response to each of three separate advertisings. Bidder Adams was a sister-in-law of a board member, bidder Rankin had no kin on the board. The bids of the two bidders varied slightly in amount on the different occasions, but Rankin's bid was usually about \$900 or fifteen per cent less than that of Adams. Unchallenged testimony indicated that, after the second bidding, Adams' husband asked a Ford dealer for a description of a school bus around which specification could be so written that Adams alone could procure the bus—with no competitor able to duplicate it. Specifications for the third bidding required the bidder to furnish "a new Superior, all steel custom deluxe, riveted and welded body; to display the bus he proposed to use to the Board of Education and the County Superintendent before the bids were opened: to include in his bid the serial number of the engine and the body of the bus; . . . furnish the name of the driver to be employed who must have had at least one year of experience in operating a school bus." Mrs. Adams possessed the only available bus which met this description. Rankin had no experience in driving school buses, but twenty years experience in driving trucks and pleasure cars. Mrs. Adams exhibited a bus, Rankin did not. The State Board of Education had authority to make rules governing pupil transportation, and prepared standard forms to be used in transportation contracts. All such contracts made by local boards were subject to review by the state board. The local board awarded the contract to Adams, but the state board refused to accept this action—because of the absence of competitive bidding. The court upheld the state board, indicating that the reason for competitive bidding was to secure economy and to prevent fraud and favoritism in awarding public contracts. The court added that under the circumstances it was not necessary to determine whether there was corruption in awarding the contract to Adams.

One dispute concerning a transportation contract in Tennessee⁴ related to the availability of funds at the time of contracting. A statute required the school board, without regard to adoption of a school budget by the County Court, "to elect all public school teachers, principals, and other school personnel" by the first of May next preceding the school year when they serve. An earlier court ruling had held that the valid election of

³Rankin v. Board of Education of Egg Harbor Township (N. J., 1947), 47 A. (2d.) 892 (Supreme Ct.), 81 A. (2d.) 194 (Ct. of Errors and Appeals).

⁴Cagle v. Wheeler (Ct. of Appeals, 1951), 242 S. W. (2d.) 338, certiorari denied.

teachers was not dependent on the county court having made budgetary or other revenue provisions at the time of election. At a meeting on August 10, before expiration of its term of office on August 31, the board elected bus drivers—but the minutes did not specify salaries or state drivers duties in detail. However all drivers concerned has been employed by the district the previous year, and about August 18 all those who claimed to be employed addressed letters to the board accepting employment. The new board refused to recognize such employment, and hired other drivers—soon after the county court adopted a budget, or about the first of September. There was no question of fitness regarding drivers employed by the old board. The new board contended that employment by the old board was void because no budget had previously been approved. The court rejected this logic, followed the reasoning concerning teachers in the earlier case, and held that the drivers employed by the old board had been employed in good faith and that they were discharged without reason by the new board. The court said: "having failed to take timely action, it was the duty of the Board to make selections so that when and if a budget should be approved personnel would be available to insure the efficient operation of the system of transportation."

It was also contended that the board minutes of August 10 were insufficient to establish a transportation contract, since salary or specific duties of drivers were not stipulated. The court said that where the drivers has been employed the previous year, and there was essentially a re-employment or extension of employment, parol evidence could supplement the minutes—so long as no statute specifically provided otherwise, and no effort was made by parol to contradict the minutes.

Dispute over availability of funds was also involved in the effort of a Kansas parent to recover for transporting his child to and from school.⁶ When the district budget was made up, the child did not live over $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the school and the district was not required to provide transportation, but during the school year a particular road became impassable and, thereafter, the home was 4 miles from school by the nearest route. A 1941 statute required the state accountant to prescribe the budget form for school districts, and in the space provided for "cost of pupil transportation" no item was entered for the current 1948-49 school year. The district contended that since no transportation item had been budgeted, no such item could be paid. The plaintiff pointed to a 1947 statute which stipulated that, if the district does not furnish transportation for children living over $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from school, then the district shall pay the person who does transport such children—according to the rate named in the statute, and that the amount might be paid from either the general fund or the special transportation fund. The court pointed out that, if there was any conflict among statutes, the latest enactment must govern. It indicated that it was the legislative intent to allow parents to recover for transporting

⁶Kimminau v. Common School District (Supreme Ct., 1950), 223 P. (2d.) 689.

their children in cases like the one at bar, and said that the absence of any special transportation item in the budget did not relieve the board of its statutory duty to compensate parents. The district was liable.

WAGES, TENURE, AND DISCHARGE OF BUS DRIVERS

In several instances, dispute has arisen concerning the amount paid bus operators, or concerning the tenure of their employment, or concerning the basis of their discharge.

Amount To Be Paid

In a few cases, dispute has been limited to compensation received. For example, the contract of an Arkansas operator⁶ stipulated that compensation would be "the sum of State allowance per school month." The operator was to furnish "one" bus, and the contract obligated him "to conform to all statutory requirements and regulations pertaining to the operation of school buses." During the previous year, this operator supplied two buses and transported an average of 86.5 pupils, but, during the first four months of the term in question, he operated one bus and transported an average of 29.97 pupils. After the four months, the district cancelled his contract. One question was raised about the right to cancel, but only about the amount due the operator. The district received state aid at the rate of \$13 per pupil for an average of 240.6 pupils transported, or \$749.66 for the four month period, and the district paid this operator \$291. It was not content that this operator had an exclusive contract to do all transporting, or that he transported 240 children in one bus, but he claimed that the district owed him the remainder of the \$749.66 or \$458.66. The question was whether the district had agreed to pay him all that it received from the state, or only a *per capita* rate of \$13 per pupil transported. The court said the record did not show definitely that the driver was paid monthly, but "it is fairly inferable that he was, and that he accepted the amount tendered by the district based upon service actually rendered." In holding that the operator was entitled only to pay for four months at the per pupil rate, the court added: "We think any doubt regarding terms of the contract was dispelled when appellant (operator), for four months, accepted the District's construction of its meaning."

Two recent Georgia cases on operator compensation were decided under statutes of 1947 and 1949. The 1947 enactment authorized the state board of education to establish "a minimum salary schedule for all bus drivers provided there shall be a differential in the minimum salary schedule for . . . drivers of publicly owned buses and privately owned buses." The 1949 act provided that "each bus driver shall receive additional compensation above the amount of compensation in force and effect for the school year 1946-47, on the basis of four cents per mile for the total route miles traveled," and stipulated that this arrangement should remain in effect until the legislature authorized the state board to change it. In October

⁶Stephens v. Cherry Hill Special School District (Supreme Ct., 1944), 177 S. W. (2d.) 722.

1949 the state board adopted a rule to pay four cents per mile above 1947 rates to drivers who furnished their own buses and two cents for drivers of county-owned buses. In one case⁷ the driver of a county-owned bus sued for compensation at the four-cent rate. The court pointed out that the 1947 act empowered the state board to fix minimum salaries and to provide a salary differential between drivers of publicly owned and of privately owned buses, but that the 1949 act did not authorize any differential in "additional compensation." The court noted that the state board, as an administrative agency of the state, had no authority to make rules which altered or limited a statute being administered. The driver of the county bus was entitled to the four-cent rate.

In the other Georgia case,⁸ a driver sought by *madamus* to force his board to pay additional compensation under the four-cent rate of the 1949 act. In 1946-47 he drove a publicly owned bus over 6,300 route miles for \$55 per month, but during the 1949-50 school year he was under contract to drive his own bus for \$204.57 per month—or \$1,841.13 for the nine-month term. He drove 7,920 miles, and claimed that after paying all costs he had less net salary left than in 1946-47. The court calculated that, if in 1949-50 he had driven a publicly owned bus as in 1946-47, he would have been entitled to \$495 as monthly salary ($9 \times \55) plus \$252 ($$.04 \times 6,300$) or \$747. But under the written contract for 1949-50 he had been paid \$1,841.13, or \$1,094.13 above the minimum which he would have been entitled to under the 1949 act if his driver status had not changed. The court stated that under the circumstances it could not be said as a matter of law that he had not already received the additional compensation stipulated in the 1949 act. The driver showed no clear legal right to be enforced by *mandamus*, and the court refused to grant it.

A South Carolina⁹ bus operator whose 4-year contract was cancelled at the end of 3 years sought to recover as damages the loss sustained on the sale of the bus. The operator had shown that the bus was in good condition at the end of the third year, and the court referred that it would be in nearly as good condition at the end of an additional year—if the contract had continued for the fourth year. If the operator secured no additional contract at the end of such fourth year, reasoned the court, the bus would at such time be sold at a loss—without reference to contract cancellation. The court said that at the time of contracting it was not contemplated that the bus would have to be sold when the contract ended, and held that loss on the sale was not an element of damage flowing from a breach of the contract. The court followed 15 American Jurisprudence 546, section 137, which states: "He (plaintiff) is not . . . entitled to recover for materials purchased in anticipation of performance where they remain his property and may be used elsewhere."

⁷Hunt v. Glenn (Supreme Ct., 1950), 58 S. E. (2d.) 137.

⁸Trussell v. Martin (Supreme Ct., 1951), 63 S. E. (2d.) 361.

⁹Smith v. Jasper County Board of Education (Supreme Ct., 1955), 86 S. E. (2d.) 738.

Disposal of the bus was also involved when a Louisiana operator was discharged.¹⁰ He claimed damages on a contract which allegedly had 3 years yet to run, and also sought to recover from the school board for the value of his bus when the contract was terminated. Under the statutes, the board had no authority to employ the operator for three years. It was, in effect, held that he served at the pleasure of the board, and hence could not recover damages when discharged before a date stipulated in a board resolution. The contract provided that the driver's successor in transportation would purchase his bus, at a price to be determined by a method set forth in the contract. Hence, there could be no recovery for the value of the bus.

Tenure and Discharge of Bus Operators

Three Louisiana cases have been decided under recent legislation intended to protect the tenure of school bus operators. In one case,¹¹ dispute hinged on whether a board could discharge an operator on the basis of a majority vote when only a quorum was present. The operator had been continuously employed by the district for ten years and was employed for the 1944-45 school year. On October 3, 1944, the driver received written charges, prepared by the superintendent at the direction of the board, to the effect that during the 1942-43 and the 1943-44 school years he had repeatedly neglected his duty in failing to run on schedule and in failing to pick up children at scheduled stops. At a board meeting on October 31, attended by eleven of the thirteen members, the charges were sustained by a vote of 6 to 5, and the operator was discharged as of November 22, 1944. The statute provided that bus drivers could not be removed except on written and signed charges of negligence or other inadequacy, and found guilty at a hearing before the board. Drivers could not be discharged through abolishing, discontinuing, or consolidating routes, unless it was established at a hearing as a fact that such change in route structure was in the best interest of the district. A section of the statute stipulated that no legislative act should be construed as giving the parish board authority to make rules which impair the provisions of the act. In the opinion, the state supreme court referred to "numerous safeguards" in the act to protect driver tenure, and recognized the right of boards to make rules to govern their own action, but said that, in view of these safeguards, "it is only reasonable to conclude that the legislature contemplated that such employees could not be discharged except by a majority vote of the members of the board and not by a majority of those present at a meeting of the board." The court emphasized the point that the tenure act was for the benefit of bus operators and not of school boards and that no board rule could effect the purpose of the act—otherwise "a less number than a majority of the board could discharge a bus operator" and render that act meaningless, said the court. Judgment was in favor of the operator.

¹⁰Brown v. Vernon Parish School Board (Supreme Ct., 1946), 209 La. 725, 25 So. (2d.) 446.

¹¹Miller v. Rapides Parish School Board (Supreme Ct., 1946), 209 La. 877, 25 So. (2d.) 623, rehearing denied.

When the Crowell case¹² came before the Louisiana Court of Appeals, dispute concerned a driver who had under the tenure act as a "regular and permanent" bus operator—having rendered satisfactory service for the stipulated time. In April 1945 he anticipated early induction into the armed forces; hence, he sold his bus and authorized the purchaser to operate it on his route. But immediately before the date fixed for his induction, the War Department adopted a rule making men of his age eligible for deferment—if engaged in "essential employment." School bus driving did not qualify as such employment, but the local draft board allowed time for him to secure such employment—which he did on June 9. The school board assumed that he had resigned his bus job, but, soon after he learned that he would not be inducted, he sought to regain the job and informed the board that he was ready and willing to resume his duties as bus operator. The board formally dismissed him August 2. In June the district consolidated certain routes and reduced the number of drivers from three to two—in accordance with the tenure act. A saving of \$1,000 was thus effected. The man who bought this operator's bus was not protected by tenure, but was continued on one of the two newly established routes. The court held that the board had acted in no unwarranted or discriminatory manner, and there would be no interference with the discretion exercised. There was no reinstatement of the old driver.

The third case¹³ involved 29 bus operators who claimed that they had been wrongfully discharged and sought reinstatement. The board had decided to make a gradual change from privately owned to publicly owned buses, and had addressed successive communications to the operators to secure information concerning bus ownership and willingness to co-operate with the board's plan. The operators refused to answer the communications or to appear for personal interviews, but proposed a new contract which was wholly out of line with board policy. On August 21, 1946, the board sent written notices of a meeting on September 6 to hear charges by the board against the operators for willful neglect of duty. The operators contended that they had no duties to perform except when school was in session and that they were not charged with any neglect as operators during the school term. The court rejected this contention stating that it was a duty of operators the same as of boards to prepare during the vacation for transportation when the school term opened—and that under the circumstances it was a duty of the operators at least to reply to the board communications so that board could prepare for the opening of school in September. In failing to do this, said the court, the operators were guilty of willful neglect of duty. It was also contended that the notice of the meeting of September 6 was inadequate because it was not given by the president but by the superintendent—who had no authority to give it. The court noted that the statute said the operator "shall be furnished by such board . . . with a copy of the written grounds" for removal, and that

¹²Crowell v. Jackson Parish School Board (1946), 28 So. (2d.) 81.

¹³State v. East Baton Rouge Parish School Board (Ct. of Appeals, 1948), 36 So. (2d.) 832.

notice from the superintendent acting under the direction of the board was adequate. It was further contended that the notice was inadequate under the 15-day provision of the statute, since the day of sending (August 21) and the day of the hearing (September 6) should not be counted. However, at the time of the hearings all operators were present with their counsel in corridors of the court house opposite the hearing room. They were invited to attend the hearings but refused to do so. The court said their presence meant that they had received proper notice and had been advised of the charges to be set forth at the hearings. The court added: "Their refusal to take any part in the proceedings whatsoever or to make any objections to any part of the proceedings constituted a waiver of all their defenses and we do not see how they can be heard now to make any of the contentions which they are here advancing in this regard." The charges were not faulty because of vagueness. There was no reinstatement of the operators.

A Pennsylvania school bus driver¹⁴ was discharged for unsatisfactory service after having completed one year under a three-year contract. The contract provided that the operator would furnish a new 1947 bus—and among other things provided that the contract itself might be terminated at the option of the board. Compensation was stipulated at \$15 per day, but was later reduced to \$13 so as to secure the approval of the State Department of Public Instruction. The driver used a 1941 bus, and contended that, at the time of reducing pay from \$15 to \$13, the secretary of the board had orally agreed to accept the 1941 bus. During the first year under the contract there had been complaints of unsatisfactory performance, but the operator was paid according to the contract. Since the change made by the secretary was made so as to bring the contract into conformity with the requirements of the state department and not on behalf of the board, said the court, the change was of no significance. The driver also contended that acceptance of the 1941 bus during the first year obligated the board to accept it during the next two years. The court said that acceptance of defective performance did not constitute assent to accept further performance of the same kind, except where successive acceptances justified the belief that the defective performance was satisfactory. However, in the case at bar the board wrote the driver on July 7, following the first year's performance, requesting that he return his contract. On July 15 the secretary, on behalf of the board, wrote the driver that the contract was based on a 1947 bus, that such bus had not been furnished and the board had no assurance that it would be furnished in the future, and that it was up to the driver to show why the contract should not be terminated. The driver's attorney apparently sought a meeting with the board, and was informed of the date for the next board meeting. Neither the driver nor his attorney appeared at the meeting, nor did the driver offer to furnish a 1947 bus. On September 8 the board rescinded the contract. The court said that the board action between July 7 and September 8 constituted

¹⁴*Mateviah v. School District of Borough of Rainey* (Supreme Ct., 1950), 74 A. (2d.) 797.

reasonable notice of the board's intention to require literal performance of the contract. The driver did not receive notice of rescission until September 11, and the board paid him for four days of service (Sept. 8-11, inclusive). This payment did not indicate any board intention to recede from its cancellation of the contract. There were no damages for not being able to perform the contract for the two remaining years.

A Kentucky statute¹⁵ providing for transportation empowered the board to decide whether it would employ operators with their own vehicles or hire drivers to operate school vehicles. A further section (4399-34) stipulated: "all appointments, promotions, transfers, and dismissals of principals, supervisors, teachers, and other public school employees shall be made only upon the recommendation of the superintendent of schools, subject to the approval of the board." An outgoing superintendent recommended to the board that it employ a particular operator to furnish bus and driver for pupil transportation, but when the new superintendent took office other drivers were employed. Plaintiff contended that, because of the recommendation of the outgoing superintendent, he had a "vested right" to employment—under section 4399-34. However, the court pointed out that the board could either employ operators with buses or employ drivers to operate school-owned buses, and held that "other public school employees" in section 4399-34 did not refer to bus drivers.

An inconclusive case, involving the discharge of a bus driver, came before the Supreme Court of New Mexico.¹⁶ The driver was employed to operate a school bus for the 1949-50 term, but advised early in the autumn that his contract was terminated. The driver testified that he operated the bus carefully and in accordance with the contract, except that on a few occasions he did not drive to the end of the route because the dirt roads were impassable after heavy rains. Testimony of several parents whose children rode the bus substantiated the driver, and teachers who had taught in the district in former years when he had driven a bus testified to his good service. When the matter of cancellation came before the state superintendent of school transportation in August for review, the driver was told by the superintendent that the matter had been dropped and that he should prepare to operate his bus when school opened. However in October he was advised that his contract was cancelled, effective November 1. The trial court held against the driver. However, the Supreme Court said he showed *prima facie* evidence of compliance, and ordered a new trial.

Retirement Benefits of School Bus Drivers

Although tenure legislation often includes provision for retirement benefits, no issue regarding such benefits has been involved in foregoing cases. However this issue appeared in a Utah case.¹⁷ Farnsworth was a long-time non-teaching bus driver who by contract was on call from 8:00 A.M.

¹⁵Smith v. Rose (Ct. of Appeals, 1943), 293 Ky. 583, 169 S. W. (2d.) 609.

¹⁶Garcia v. Sandoval County Board of Education (1951), 227 P. (2d.) 939.

¹⁷Farnsworth v. Utah State Teacher's Retirement Board (Supreme Ct., 1952), 250 P. (2d.) 943.

to 5: P.M. to transport pupils. He was paid a monthly wage. A statute made drivers eligible for retirement benefits—if they worked regularly for thirty hours per week or more. In 1945 the drivers concerned were invited by the board to join the state retirement plan, which they did. They were accepted and they paid dues for several years, and, when applying for benefits, they were paid. However, after a time, payments were summarily stopped because the secretary of the board thought drivers did not satisfy the 30-hour requirement—exclusive of “on call” time. Drivers gave detailed and uncontroverted testimony that they did work thirty hours or more per week exclusive of an “on call” time. The secretary based his opinion on gossip with officials from certain other districts to the effect that “generally” such drivers did not work thirty hours per week, but he made no effort to determine what the situation was in the district concerned. The court accepted the testimony of the drivers, and held that they satisfied the 30-hour requirement.

COMPENSATING PARENTS FOR TRANSPORTING THEIR OWN CHILDREN

Statutes frequently authorize arrangements whereby school districts may operate transportation vehicles, compensate parents for transporting their own children, or provide room and board near the school in lieu of transportation. Under such conditions various questions may arise concerning the method elected in providing educational opportunity for certain children—including questions of when or how much parents might be paid.

An Iowa parent¹⁸ lived four miles from school, and prior to April 1, 1943, a district-operated bus passed in front of his home to pick up children. Under directions of the State Department of Public Instruction and the Office of Defense Transportation, this service was curtailed on that date, and the nearest point on the bus route was a mile from this home. Plaintiff transported his child to the route, although he had no contract with the board for doing so, and sought to recover for his service. The statute said the board “may require” parents to transport their children as much as two miles to connect with a bus route, and the board “shall allow a reasonable compensation” for such transportation. In determining what is reasonable, said the statute, “consideration shall be given to the number and age of the children, the condition of the roads, and the number of miles to be traveled.” The court noted that the statute did not require a parent to have a contract before transporting his child, regarded pupil-transportation statutes to be remedial and, hence, to be liberally constructed, and pointed out that in December 29, 1943, the board resolved to pay for transportation by parents under conditions and at the rate here involved. The failure of the board to perform its statutory obligation of transporting the child compelled the parent to do so, reasoned the court, and the parent was entitled to reasonable compensation. The resolution of December 29 was a recognition of the board's obligation, said the court,

¹⁸*Harwood v. Dysart* (Supreme Ct., 1946), 21 N. W. (2d.) 884.

and really "an uninterrupted continuation of the transportation as they had previously performed it." Regulations of the Office of Defense Transportation did not relieve the district of its statutory obligation to compensate the plaintiff, the court added. Judge Miller dissented on the ground that, without a demand on the district to furnish transportation, the parent was a mere volunteer and not entitled to compensation.

A Nebraska district¹⁹ closed school—under a statute which authorized closing when there were fewer than five pupils, provided the district paid the cost and otherwise made satisfactory arrangement for the children concerned to attend school elsewhere. Two sections of the statute were involved. Section 79-221 provided for closing schools when there were fewer than five school children, and authorized the board to use funds "received from any source to provide for the board and transportation and other expense of such children while attending school in another district." Section 79-1907 related to the transportation of children within a district, and set up a basis for determining the amount to be paid parents who rendered service in connection with such transportation. The district contended that the two sections should be construed together, and, accordingly, that the rate of pay indicated in section 79-1907 should govern transportation provided because of closing schools under section 79-221. The plaintiff sought a higher rate of compensation. The court pointed out the different circumstances under which the two sections authorized transportation, and noted that section 79-221 provided for "other expense" incurred by children in attending school in another district. Section 79-1907 did not determine the rate of compensation for transportation and related service provided as a result of closing school under section 79-221.

In a subsequent Nebraska case,²⁰ parents sought to compel the board to convey their daughter to and from school rather than pay them for doing so. The Bender family lived on a farm in District 39. The district agreed to pay tuition for Bender's child to attend school in District 38 and was willing to pay Bender mileage for transporting his child but refused to furnish transportation. Two sections of the statute were involved. Section 79-486 authorized the district to contract for instruction of a pupil in a neighboring district and "make provision" for transportation to the school concerned—upon a majority vote of the district. Upon such a vote, a petition by two thirds of the parents of the district with children who attend school, one district might contract with another for both instruction and transportation. Section 79-490 stipulated: "when no other means of transportation is provided . . . there shall be made an allowance for transportation to the family . . . by the district in which such family resides." At an appropriate meeting, a majority voted to close the school for the ensuing year and to give the board authority to pay a stipulated mileage for transportation, but there was no action to empower the board to provide for transporting any child to a school in a neighboring district. The court

¹⁹Batterman v. Bronderslev (Supreme Ct., 1949), 36 N. W. (2d.) 284.

²⁰Bender v. Palmer (Supreme Ct., 1951), 48 N. W. (2d.) 65.

held that there was no such vote or petition as to compel the board to provide transportation under section 79-486. Hence the board was acting under section 79-490, and might compensate the parent instead of furnishing a vehicle to convey the child.

A North Dakota family²¹ lived in a bow made by a river which entered and soon flowed out of one edge of the district. The distance from school was ten miles by the "most convenient public course of travel," the plaintiff transported his children 294 days during the two years in controversy. Section 15-3404 of the statute said the board "may" pay each family living over two miles from school "a sum per day of each day's attendance of a child or children of such family" to compensate for transportation or lodging furnished by the parent. The pay allowed 60 cents per day if the distance from school was from $5\frac{3}{4}$ to 6 miles, and 5c per day for each half miles over 6 miles. Section 15-3405 stated that the board "may" furnish each family living over two miles from school either "vehicular transportation by public conveyance or the equivalent of payments specified in section 15-3404 in lodging or tuition at some public school if the same is acceptable to the family"—but that neither of these alternatives was available when there was compensation under section 15-3404. The district made various offers to the plaintiff: to send a bus to the side of the river opposite his home—but there was no bridge near that point—to pay for room and board for his children, to pay him \$85 per month to transport his two children and one other, or to pay him \$50 per month to transport his own two children. The plaintiff rejected all of these offers, contending that "each family" as used in the statutes meant "every family" and that, if the district transported some children of the district, it was acting arbitrarily if it did not transport all children. He sought to recover \$2,400 as the actual value of service rendered. The court said that the two sections were clearly to be construed together, and that the board might pay some parents under the schedule of section 15-3404 and furnish vehicular transportation to others under section 15-3405. The plaintiff was a volunteer and had no implied contract with the district, said the court, and he could recover only under section 15-3404—or one dollar per day for 294 days.

The right of Mrs. George to recover for transportation furnished her child depended on the time and method of filing her claim.²² The statute read: "All claims for transportation allowances shall be filed for payment monthly. No action for recovery on any claim for transportation allowance shall be brought after twelve months from the last day of any month of actual attendance for which attendance is claimed." At various times Mrs. George had made oral demands on the district treasury for payment, but she had never filed a written claim and the board had consistently refused to recognize her oral demands. The court said the crucial question was whether the provision that "all claims . . . must be filed monthly" was mandatory. In holding the provision to be mandatory, the court added that it conferred a new right and prescribed a mode for acquiring and enjoying that right, and that it must be strictly complied with by anybody claiming benefits under it. There was no recovery.

²¹Reich v. Diets School District (Supreme Ct., 1952), 55 N. W. (2d.) 638.

²²George v. School District No. 24 (Supreme Ct., 1953), 187 Neb. 791. 61 N. W. (2d.) 401.

The Assignment and Induction of New Teachers

LEROY M. CHRISTOPHE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS EDUCATIONAL IMPORTANCE

THE purpose of this article is to present some of the basic issues and principles involved in the assignment and induction of teaching personnel in the secondary school. Material for this report has been gleaned from educational research in the field of personnel administration and supplemented by points of view of the writer developed from experience in the field of secondary educational administration.

One of the first responsibilities of a supervisor to a new employee is to make him feel that he is wanted. Too often new teachers get the feeling that no one cares whether they are on the job or not.¹

.....the principal should exercise considerable care to make his assignments in such a way that the load will be equally divided among members of the staff, and he should be constantly alive to every opportunity to reduce the demands made upon their time and physical and mental energy.²

The aim of a good induction program is to make the new employee feel an integral part of the organization as soon as possible, to be a member of the group rather than a stranger looking on from the outside.³

These quotations from experts in the field of personnel administration indicate the importance of effective induction and assignment techniques. Furthermore, the points of view just quoted, attach definite responsibility to administrative and supervisory officers in such a program.

ASSIGNMENT OF NEW TEACHERS—FACTORS AND PRINCIPLES

In the writer's opinion, few single elements of personnel administration are more important to high teacher morale than the assignment of responsibilities to that teacher who is just beginning. Next to salary, most teachers are concerned about the equitable distribution of work loads. This is not evidence of a lack of devotion to duty on the part of teachers. Rather, it infers that they want to do a good job of teaching and realize that a fair teaching load produces more efficient work and yields vast dividends. Douglass⁴ concludes that: "In a number of instances, the author

¹Kinball, Wiles. *Supervision for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice Hall. 1950. P. 216.

²Harl R. Douglass. *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*. New York: Ginn and Company. 1946. P. 119.

³Richard P. Calhoun. *Problems in Personnel Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1949. P. 141.

⁴Douglass, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

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has materially increased the usefulness of a teacher by changing the teaching assignment to lower or upper grades of pupils and, on several occasions, by changing the department in which the teacher taught from what appeared first to be his strongest subject to one in which he was much better adapted to teach."

Two different preparations daily are considered adequate for a teacher. Although there may be some justification for three separate preparations for a secondary-school teacher, it should be recognized that insufficient time will be available to prepare for effective instruction. Five classes a day with no study hall or extraclass duties are considered a just load. When co-operatives are added to a teacher's load, the number of classes should be reduced. Douglass⁵ and Gruhn⁶ suggest the following factors that should be considered in determining a teacher's load:

1. Number of sections taught daily
2. Number of pupils taught daily
3. Number of preparations
4. Amount of time spent in co-operations
5. Length of periods
6. Subjects taught and time spent in preparation
7. Personnel of pupils—range of difference
8. Age and maturity of pupils
9. Professional improvement requirements
10. Use and care of instructional equipment and facilities
11. Guidance and pupil adjustment responsibilities
12. Required and expected community relationships

Although practices vary, the prevailing method of assigning teachers in secondary schools is by departments. In some instances teachers are assigned classes in two or more subjects fields. This is especially true in "core" or "fused course" curriculums. Often teachers are given classes in the junior and the senior high-school divisions to increase their breadth of experience.. Such a practice reveals considerable merit.

Because of ineffective results and the negative effects upon teacher morale, the following practices of assigning teachers are inadvisable:

1. The assigning of teacher college graduates to lower grades than are assigned to graduates of colleges and universities.
2. Assigning heavier loads and more sections to beginning teachers than are assigned to teachers more experienced.
3. Permitting older teachers to select classes of their preference and giving those left to new teachers.

The size of classes is often given an undue amount of thought. More important, is the total pupil load per day. As measured by teachers' marks and standardized tests, large classes have proved as effective as small ones for pupil growth. Whatever the class assignment, it should result from

⁵*Ibid.*, pp. 112-613.

⁶William T. Gruhn and Earl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1947. P. 430.

the co-operative efforts of the teacher concerned, the department head, and the supervisor, with the principal taking the initiative.

Class interruptions and extra service are two often neglected factors in equating teachers' work loads. According to a study made in California, "The average number of interruptions endured by the elementary teachers in this study was 12.48 per week while their fellows in high school had their classes interrupted an average of twenty times per week. The teachers would agree that interruptions add considerably to the burden, if not to the hours of service, of the teacher"⁷ The *Nation's Schools'* poll,⁸ on the best way to manage extra pay for co-operative, gave several plans in the order ranked below:

1. Pay adequate salaries to all teachers and forbid extra pay for extra hours.
2. Divide teacher's duties into two categories, one of which is allowed extra pay.
3. Equalize teaching load, permitting late arrival of those who work evenings and Saturdays.
4. Pay for all extra hours beyond a set number per week.
5. Do away with interschool activities that require prolonged coaching.

In the writer's experience teachers have been observed to assume services of their own selection which requires extra hours of work. This is a personal interest matter, however, and should not be confused with the assigned duties. Often these assigned services prove inviting to the teacher. Nevertheless, the official leader should not use a teacher's enthusiasm for an activity to make undue demands for overtime.

In the writer's experience, teachers dislike interruptions whether from the office or other teachers. Few teachers will make any effort to prevent or reduce pauses caused by co-workers. Yet, they appreciate administrative measures that are taken to guard them against such hindrances. Most teachers become disgusted with frequent unscheduled assemblies, *etc.* that interfere with the operation of the normal schedule. Edmonson⁹ enumerated ways that the teacher's load may be made lighter. Following is an *abbreviation* of the factors contained in that list:

1. Provide substitution promptly
2. Supply new teachers with summary of rules, regulations, and policies.
3. Provide adequate facilities for mimeographing.
4. Avoid long meetings after school.
5. Reduce interferences with daily routine to a minimum.
6. Cultivate, among students, proper respect for the teacher's authority.
7. Protect teachers from spiteful, unwarranted attacks of critics.
8. Remove objectionable students at once from a classroom.
9. Supply teachers with clerical help for school business.
10. Simplify forms used in the school.

⁷California Teachers Association, "Teachers Load Survey," *Sierra Educational News*, December 1947.

⁸"What About Extra Pay for Extra Work?" *Nation's Schools*, 39: 20; June 1947.

⁹J. B. Edmonson, "How To Lighten the Teaching Load." *Journal of Education*, October 1922, Vol. XCVI, pp. 325-326.

11. Assist new teachers to secure satisfactory housing.
12. Assist new teachers to make desirable social contacts.
13. Adjust teaching loads to fit the teacher's experience.
14. Secure instructional supplies ahead of time.
15. Provide for make up work to be done during school hours.
16. Provide student assistance.
17. Reduce the number of preparations to a minimum.
18. Suggest time-saving methods for quizzes and tests.
19. Suggest disciplinary measures other than keeping in after school.
20. Eliminate fear in supervision.

Douglass¹⁰ has re-printed eight principles of assigning teachers that were developed by the Commission of Research of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Persons responsible for the administration of teacher assignments should seek to incorporate those principles into practice in the schools.

From the discussion carried on in the first part of this article, it is reasonable to conclude that the principal and other school officers are obligated to give serious and continuous attention to the assignment of teachers to various school responsibilities. The problem merits more than a casual, unsystematic approach. Rather, it should occupy a larger part of administrative study and planning. Expected results will be worth-while improvement in teachers' morale and performance.

INDUCTION OF NEW TEACHERS

The three major factors of induction are: *information, hospitality, and genuine interest*. In this section of the article, the writer will discuss ways in which these elements are made operative in effective school administration. A program which provided for the proper induction procedures for new teachers is essential to desirable teacher morale. Many capable teachers have been lost to the profession because school administration has failed to provide this period of orientation. When new teachers enter a school system and are permitted to "drift" aimlessly, then confusion arises, morale is low, and the general results are often failure.

Many ideas have been advanced regarding the induction of new teachers and steps that should be followed to insure competent, happily adjusted personnel. New teachers need to know about the community and its environs; the social, cultural, and recreational opportunities of the community. It is the duty of the official leader to see that teachers are properly informed about the new teaching situation before the opening of school. The following elements are important to good induction of new teachers:¹⁷

1. *Information about the community*

Population, trends, dominant racial groups, churches, dominant vocational groups, libraries, etc.

¹⁰H. R. Douglass. *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*. New York: Ginn and Company. P. 125.

¹¹Glen G. Eve. *Introducing a Teacher to the School Community*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service.

2. *Information about the school*
Enrollment, trends, grades included, number of teachers, teachers of special subjects, number of new teachers, supervisors, types of records to be kept, and names and vocations of members of the board of education.
3. *Information about the teaching*
Teaching load, teacher's time schedule, probable extracurriculum load, date and time to report for duty, available audio-visual aid materials, and building facilities.
4. *Information of personal interest to the teacher*
Typical living accommodations for teachers, average cost of room and board, personal habits not approved by the community, established security provisions (insurance for the group, sick leave, etc), and number and dates of salary payments.

The Orientation Period

A period of a week or two weeks should be set aside for the induction of new teachers.¹² It will usually depend upon the terms of the teacher's contract as to whether participation is compulsory or optional. The orientation period for new teachers should include these and other factors:

1. *Securing adequate housing and living accommodations.*—A list of available houses and rooms should be compiled by the central office. Information should be available concerning banks, credit bureaus, business places, cafes, places of amusement, etc.

2. *Meeting the administrative staff.*—New teachers should have an opportunity to meet the superintendent, supervisors, and other staff members of the central office. Each member should explain the function and duties of his respective office. Much emphasis should be placed on the work of the central office and the manner in which the executive department operates. The new teacher should be introduced to the building principal if he did not participate in the teacher's selection. The principal should have charge of building induction. Among other things this phase of over-all induction should include:

- a. Room and grade assignment
- b. Issuing pupil folders so that the new teacher will have sufficient time to study in advance of meeting pupils
- c. Opportunity to meet pupils when they register
- d. Issuing supplies and teaching materials
- e. Arrange for teachers to meet PTA officers and room patrons
- f. Opportunity for teachers to confer with special supervisors

3. *Meeting the school board.*—An opportunity should be provided for new teachers to meet the members of the school board. The president of the board should inform the teachers concerning the duties of the board and their responsibility to the public for a high type of educational program.

4. *Becoming acquainted with people.*—The PTA should take the lead in seeing that the new teachers are properly introduced into the community. Clubs, churches, and civic organizations should be enlisted to make their contribution to this phase of the orientation period. Socials should be planned so that the new teachers may meet members of different groups and organizations.

¹²Glen G. Eve, *Introducing a Teacher to the School Community*, Randolph Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service.

5. *The "right start."*—It is the duty of the building principal to organize the school program so that new teachers will receive the "right start" in a new assignment. Many of the principal's duties in this matter are:

- a. Aiding and supporting the teacher in solving problems
- b. Encouraging and maintaining a wholesome attitude and unimpaired morale with respect to the work
- c. Planning professional challenges to secure and maintain interest
- d. Giving direct instruction in professional ethics, attitude, and conduct to be observed at school
- e. Considering the teacher potentially capable of professional improvement until found otherwise
- f. Introducing the teacher to general school responsibilities—guidance of pupils, the curriculum, school facilities, records and reports, finances of the school, and co-curricular responsibilities.

6. *Special problems of beginning teachers.*—The average beginning teacher faces among others, the following problems: confusion, group control, and planning instructional work. Inability to handle the general school responsibilities plus discipline problems results in confusion and often failure. Many educators believe that beginning teachers should be required to serve an internship or cadetship in order that they may have the experience of general school routine with the responsibilities of such matters. The cadet or intern teacher should not have the responsibility of a classroom until he has demonstrated the ability to assume successfully that duty. These beginning teachers should be assigned to a master teacher who will give them assistance in handling school problems, such as routine, discipline, planning instruction, etc. It is very important that the beginning teachers realize that he is teaching pupils and not subjects. Therefore, he should be prepared to plan instruction according to the needs of the pupils.

The following principles of induction should be evident in orientation programs for new staff members:

1. The chief administrator of a school has definite professional responsibility for the induction of new teachers.
2. Induction should be carried on over an extended period of time. Items should be handled in their logical sequence, giving only what is essential at that time and before the next phase of induction activities.
3. Extended efforts should be made to enable the new teacher to "feel at home." First impressions are often lasting ones.
4. Certain information should be made available to the new teacher in advance of school opening, such as community interests and institutions, school policies, course outlines, and the new teacher's program.
5. A conscious effort should be made to assist the new teacher in developing desirable attitudes toward the school, its pupils, the personnel, the patrons, the policies of the district and school, the teacher's assignment, etc.
6. Each key functionary of the school should be utilized in the induction proceedings.
7. There are problems that are more common to the new teacher than to the experienced teacher. These should be taken into account in induction proceedings.
8. The new teacher should be expected to serve an internship or cadetship under a master teacher.

The Role of Courses in Education at the Level of the Master's Degree

ARTHUR G. WIRTH

WHAT central task for the teaching profession should be performed by graduate courses in education leading to the master's degree? In the remarks which follow we shall be content to focus attention on several fundamental items which need attention in grappling with the question rather than attempting to provide a comprehensive answer. We begin with an assumption which affects many of the remarks which follow. The assumption is that, in many master's programs in teacher education, a majority of the students will be taking graduate work on a part-time basis, during the first few years of their careers as teachers. A number of pressures now work toward that end. In the state of New York, for example, teachers at the secondary level must complete thirty credits of work beyond the bachelor's degree to receive regular state certification, and salary increments for teachers at other levels are dependent on the completion of the same amount of work.

There are several factors which have an important significance for the question under inquiry:

1. Two or three of the most critical years of the teacher's career and, therefore, for the teaching profession are the beginning years of his teaching, following graduation from college. The experience received at this period may have a strong determining effect on the career of a teacher for years that follow.

2. For a growing number of teachers these important years of their careers will be the years when they are taking graduate work leading toward the master's degree.

These facts lead us to a central argument of this paper: The question as to what the role of the master's program should be must be answered only as we raise the larger question as to what an adequate total program for professional growth should be during the beginning years of the teacher's career. In brief, the contention is: (1) that in order to strengthen the profession of teaching, critical, responsible thinking must be devoted to the program for professional growth that shall be developed for the years immediately following the completion of the basic undergraduate program, (2) that both a strong intern program and a program of graduate study are needed aspects for professional growth at this period, (3) that for maximum effect the intern and graduate programs should be co-ordinately

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planned so that they complement and support each other and so that the areas for concentration of work by each will be understood clearly by all concerned.

It is maintained, furthermore, that the graduate program of the college or university can only define its job accurately and be effective in its operation if it can assume that its young graduate students are receiving the vitally essential support that they need from a strong intern program.

In many instances, due to shortages of personnel and funds, many beginning teachers, particularly in mass, urban systems, are given weighty responsibilities, oftentimes in difficult teaching situations, without the supportive kind of assistance they need from a well-rounded supervisory and intern program. The author's experience in New York City in recent years strongly confirms this point. As the beginning teachers are harrassed and frightened, they may become embittered and disillusioned at the very beginning of their careers. If, because of a variety of pressures, they attempt to begin graduate work in late afternoon or evening classes, the experiences may very well be disappointing for both the students and faculty involved. Students who, during the day as teachers, are called on to bear responsibility beyond their capacity and without the intern help they legitimately need, bring fatigue and anxiety with them to their graduate classes. They cannot function at their true level of ability as students, and they may tend to be critical of graduate courses because they do not find in them the answers to the specific pressing problems they are faced with in their daily classrooms. There is the tendency impatiently to reject ideas, concepts, and research when earnest questions about "how to do" and "how to handle" this item or that seemingly get ignored at all levels. Those who are teaching graduate courses in education have to wrestle with alternatives, such as attempting to turn their courses into "how to do it" classes only to discover that the classroom on a college campus is not an effective medium for working on many of the kinds of items involved even if the attempt is made; deciding to continue their teaching in disregard of student laments, which is possible only by developing callouses or rationalizations which make it possible to ignore the criticism which follow.

The argument presented here is that there is a need for both an intern and a graduate program of work in the beginning years of a young teacher's work. Each has legitimate functions to perform, many of which are complementary. The total effort made will be less effective to the extent that they are not thought through together and co-ordinated. The medical profession has found it necessary to develop both a strong intern program and a program of advanced studies beyond the period of basic training. Analogies are dangerous, but the teaching profession needs to give serious thought to the needs for such a twin-pronged program for those in its ranks who have just completed the basic part of their preparation.

We assume then that both the intern program and advanced studies at the graduate level are requisite for the strengthening of the teaching pro-

fession. An adequate definition of the nature of graduate studies, both in education and in other disciplines can be developed only as we assume that an intern program is giving assistance to the beginning teacher in the important matters which are appropriate to it. Such a program would include factors, such as intelligent, sensitive supervision; in-service courses, workshop situations where experienced teachers can work with beginning teachers on the practical problems confronting a particular school; and realistic provisions which make classroom visitations by beginning teachers available. A graduate faculty of education can co-operate in some of these matters but, where an intern program is lacking or inadequate, the graduate faculty will not be able to perform its own proper function adequately.

We turn then, to a consideration of what is the proper function of graduate study in education. We might begin by spelling out what graduate courses can and cannot do well, and what they should and should not be expected to do. They cannot, for example, give as much help for many kinds of specific classroom problems as resources which are available in the local school situation. They should not include refresher courses or courses that are clearly the responsibility of an undergraduate program. (We are handicapped at this point by the fact that we are still in process of defining what is the proper function of the master's degree, in general, in American education.)

At this point the writer does not pretend to have a definitive answer as to just what the responsibility of graduate courses in education should be, but he does maintain that there are certain tasks for which they peculiarly are fitted and to which they should attend. These include:

1. Extending the study and examination of the knowledge and concepts which are emerging from scientific study and seeking to determine their functional implications for various aspects of the educational enterprise
2. Helping teachers to see their work in a broader social and philosophical perspective
3. Helping teachers to learn the intellectual and human relations skills that are essential for problem solving in the progression.

We must clarify for all parties concerned the kinds of services graduate programs in education properly can be expected to offer. Knowledge, perspective, problem solving, and research procedures can be made available. The implications of these for practical educational problems can be pursued. A graduate course is *not* the place, however, for the student who has only a burning desire for some immediate answers to problems with his second-period class, valid as his wish may be. A beginning teacher has a right to expect aid in such matters. The profession must be prepared to offer support and consultation through adequate supervision and in-service programs for these young people. A question that must be pursued is what matters can be handled more effectively and appropriately by supervision and in-service programs and which by graduate courses in education.

Does this mean that instructors of graduate courses in education shall be left free to spin theoretical dreams in a phantasy world of their own crea-

tion—a charge which is not infrequently hurled in their direction? It does not. It means though that there will be a recognition of what are some of their proper functions. The graduate faculty through study and research should be creating and reaching out for knowledge and ideas relevant for the profession and see that these are entertained by their students. They can help students to have a deeper understanding of the background of problems which they face, they can develop an awareness of promising trends or techniques when they exist, they can help students to learn the discipline of demarcating aspects of troublesome situations which can be managed by problem solving procedures.

Graduate courses in education can do only a part of the job. The point is that they should undertake only the part that they are fitted to handle while the intern program is handling the other part that is of at least equal importance. Once the supervisory, intern, and graduate programs are thought through into a co-ordinated plan for professional growth of the beginning teacher, the dichotomy between theory and practice can be seen to be a false one. The job to be done can be defined in terms of the various professional problems which need attention, and they can be divided into those which more properly belong to the intern program or the graduate division of study and those which should be approached co-operatively by both.

If there is merit to the ideas suggested here, it is obvious that their implementation requires the development of close working relations between institutions of higher education and public school authorities. Variations in approach would have to be made in terms of the differences existing in various localities. These ideas also require the conviction that the position of the profession of teaching in American life can be strengthened only as the constant effort is made to establish the conditions which are essential for the building of a true profession. In an era when pressures are strong to reduce professional standards, the profession itself must be more dogged than ever in clarifying and fighting for programs essential for strengthening it.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

The 41st Annual Convention
of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
will be held in Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

Why Not Use Discussion at Your Faculty Meeting?

DONALD C. BLANDING

ONE of the problems in education, it appears to many people in the field, is to devise methods so that all faculty members participate in the workings of a group. The problem of activating all of the members of a group appears universal, and is not limited to the field of education.

To meet this challenge of participation in its activities, the In-Service Committee of the Ely, Minnesota, Public Schools decided to try the discussion technique. Accordingly, the group sponsored a faculty meeting of all the teachers in the city's school system—85 in number from kindergarten through junior college. Much care went into the preparation of the program, but, like all presentations, success could not be assured.

The first phase of the faculty meeting was staged in the audio-visual room of the Memorial High School. At 3 P.M., the meeting was opened by Michael Hnatko, social science teacher in the high school. Hnatko greeted the audience members and announced that they were to be shown a film dealing with a subject in which it might be assumed all of them were interested—methods of teaching. This film—*The Broader Concept of Method*, a two-reel film—contrasts the traditional question-and-answer period in teaching with that of problem solving or the project methods. After this, Hnatko again assumed the chairmanship of the program and asked that the audience members count off in *nine's*. He announced that coffee and cake were being served in the cafeteria of the high school and invited the group members to adjourn there. He requested that all of the number *one's* sit at the table designated with that number and that this format be employed throughout the scale of nine.

At each of the tables, the committee had placed a coffee container and a plate of cake, as well as cream and sugar. Little time, then, was spent in the group's getting the coffee. After about 10 minutes had been allowed for the members of the group to chat informally, the chairman of the second section of the meeting, Bernard Mauser, grade instructor at Washington school, got the attention of the group and announced that a discussion would be held. It was then approximately 4 P.M. and the meeting was scheduled for dismissal at 4:30 o'clock.

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To aid in the formation of discussion, each group member then received a mimeographed form of suggested procedures. These had been prepared by the committee and were distributed by these people. The format employed is shown in the following note:

IN-SERVICE MEETING

Dear Teacher,

We hope that you've enjoyed your coffee in this, a meeting designed to aid your professional growth. The success of this meeting now rests upon your shoulders. Your in-service committee, after previewing the films, framed a different question for each of the groups to consider. The purpose of this meeting, you'll recall, is to generate discussion. To aid your discussion, may we suggest that you follow these steps:

1. *Elect a chairman.* His responsibility will be to read your question and guide the discussion which we hope will ensue.
2. *Elect a reporter.* His responsibility will be to make notes of the discussion and to aid in framing the observations of the group. This report will be made to the group following the discussion period.
3. May we ask that your report be ready in about 15 minutes?

Sincerely yours,

Your In-Service Committee.

Immediately following this, the committee members presented a question to each of the groups which served as a topic for the discussion which followed. It was reiterated that the purpose of this meeting was to stir discussion rather than to arrive at solutions.

Although the chairman and the other committee members disliked shutting off discussion, such was necessitated in order that the reports could be heard by all of the groups. The liveliness of the comments which were being made at each of the tables was an amazing experience. This was the first time the discussion technique had been employed in a faculty meeting for a number of years. Those who have had experience in this phase of communication realize that one never can be sure of what reaction—if any—will ensue in a discussion period. Each of the committee members was impressed with the enthusiasm of the discussion at the tables.

Mauser, after getting the attention of the group, asked that the recorder elected by each of the groups then give the reaction of the members of his group after he had read the question which had served as a topic for discussion. In the following paragraphs, Method 1 will designate the traditional method of teaching in which the instructor poses questions based upon reading which has been assigned in a textbook. Method 2 is the problem-solving or project method.

The divergence of interests in the individuals who comprised each of the groups is well shown in some of these responses. A group in which all

of the levels of teaching would be represented was the desire of the committee. By use of the counting off in a series of nine, it is believed, the tendency for teachers in certain buildings or subjects to associate with others whose interests are the same was overcome.

CAN YOU USE METHOD 2?

Group 1's question was "To what extent can you adopt Method 2 in your teaching?" Some of the responses follow: The director of the band stated that the band, by necessity, is autocratic because, if there is more than one conductor, the band becomes a disorganized unit. The band, in a sense, is a military organization and must operate as such; but the project method is possible as for example in fund raising programs and in the use of band officers. In the latter, one may view the officers as a panel and the band members as the discussion group.

Another teacher observed that, if the entire group is interested, guidance may be carried out effectively by Method 2. Reports and discussion groups are used in the teaching of languages, it was reported. The correlation of language and reading works very well, it was stated by an instructor in elementary social sciences. He observed that pupils are interested in learning and willing to work together.

ON WHAT LEVEL CAN METHOD 2 BE USED?

"Upon What Level Should Method 2 Be Used?" was the topic for discussion by the second group. The answer was simple—when the pupils are ready. But consideration must be given to two features: (1) the complexity of the problem; and (2) the maturity, experience, and background of the pupil. The teachers in this group suggested that there is a tendency for the teacher to underestimate the level of performance of the pupil.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF METHOD 2 EXPLORED

Group 3 discussed the advantages of Method 2 and made the following suggestions:

1. The development of leadership
2. The stimulation of pupil interest and participation
3. The realization of meaningful learning
4. The satisfaction of pupils
5. The broadening of the outlook of the pupils.

Group 4 found these disadvantages in Method 2:

1. The failure to stress important things because of deviation from the subject
2. The consuming of time to get to the ultimate goal
3. The demands upon the leader of the group, which means that the strong members of the group will assume the most responsibility
4. The necessity of the subject being of sufficient interest to hold attention
5. The time lapse between meetings and gathering information which may result from the student's working outside of the school.

SIX DIFFICULTIES ANTICIPATED IN SWITCHING METHODS

In considering the difficulties which might be anticipated in changing from Method 1 to Method 2, Group 5 listed these six needs:

1. Special texts and library facilities
2. Large rooms which are well lighted and provided with furniture which is portable
3. Teachers who are skilled in co-operation, research, and election procedures
4. Teachers who are given time to plan projects as well as supervise them and check the progress of the individuals in the group
5. Skill in the selection of projects so that all of the students are given incentives to participate
6. The measurement of response.

THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN THE METHODS CONTRASTED

The members of Group 6, who explored the question of the teacher's role in working with these two methods, termed Method 1 *autocratic* and Method 2 *democratic*. In the assignment, the teacher is dominant in Method 1 and the text guides the work. A number of pages to be read is the usual mode of presentation. In asking all of the questions to stir response, the teacher can be viewed more in the guise of a director than a guide. But in Method 2, questions are posed by the students. Democracy is practiced when the teacher adopts the recommendations of committees. The teacher, by relating the subject to his own sphere of action, works from personal experience rather than a text. This means that discussion is stimulated and the teacher leaves the role of dominance frequently. But he knows, all of the time, where the discussion is heading.

CHANGING METHODS POSES POSSIBLE ADMINISTRATIVE DIFFICULTIES

The anticipation of possible administrative difficulties occupied the members of Group 7 in their thinking of changing from Method 1 to Method 2. It was their feeling that there would be difficulties from three sources: (1) Discipline; (2) Motivation of the shyer, more retiring student; and (3) Evaluation. The question for the group was, "Do you anticipate that administrative difficulties would result from changing from Method 1 to Method 2?" Its phrasing brought this question from the group: "Does this question imply that Method 1 is traditional and is or should be considered as an exclusive method? Rather, is not a combination of Methods 1 and 2 desirable as well as necessary?"

HOW WILL THE STUDENTS REACT TO METHOD 2?

"What student reaction to Method 2 can you anticipate?" was the topic of the members of Group 8. On the positive side, these comments were made:

1. The problem will become more significant to the pupils
2. Students react favorably to something in which they are going to participate, regardless of the pupils or their placement
3. This reaction depends upon the teacher planning and guidance.

One negative comment was made: the methods and reception are dependent upon the type of student—whether he is conscientious or ambitious.

WHAT ABOUT TIME?

The last group of faculty members considered the institution of Method 2 from the angle of time consumption. In their opinion, Method 2 could not be considered a time saver in teaching. Their question was, "Do you think, in terms of time saving, that the project method is superior to the question and answer method?"

The above account is the story of how one faculty used discussion. In this situation, the technique proved valuable. Our committee suggests that other groups might find this helpful. We were impressed with the reception accorded the presentation and the favorable comments at the end of the program distinguishing this, we believe, from the usual program designed for professional growth.

WEST, E. D., compiler and editor. *Background for a National Scholarship Policy*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1956. 170 pp. \$1.50. Human talent is our greatest natural resource. Its conservation and development should be, therefore, a primary concern of everyone. When human talent is wasted, everyone is deprived; when it is rightly developed, everyone benefits. Indeed, American democracy is firmly established on the bedrock proposition that the fortunes of the individual and society rise and fall together. Latent interest in programs designed to enable young men and women of superior ability to develop their full capacities through higher education has been intensified in recent months by evidence of serious current and prospective shortage of skilled personnel not only in science and engineering but also in teaching and numerous other occupations. One result has been an insistent demand for additional scholarships, with special emphasis on plans for nationwide competitions.

The American Council on Education secured the services of Dr. West to investigate this problem. Dr. West reviewed a mass of literature covering the entire field of scholarships and submitted a report. This report set forth three general features of a scholarship program: *Identify* the talented; *inspire* the talented to want the maximum intellectual development possible; and *implement* the aspirations developed. This report should be of material assistance to those who have a sincere interest in the urgent problem of conserving and developing human talent in the United States.

A Teacher's Creed

EUGENE YOUNGERT

HOW daring and exultant a statement of faith in boys and girls
The public high school was in the day that gave it birth and strength!
How *could* it escape the suspicion
Of people convinced that the secondary school
Is a selective agency to choose from *all* youth
Those capable of further education
And destined for the leadership of their fellowmen?
For, this innovation substituted for the traditional concept of selectivity
Something new and strange.
And to it society gave the duty
Of bringing public secondary education
To all youth capable of filling an acceptable place
In American society outside of institutions for the helpless.

All youth come to the high school,
And we who serve them accept gladly the injunction to work with *all*,
For the benefit and according to the capacity of *each*.

Thus grew need for new understanding of selectivity,
For in the public high school we *do* get *all*,
With abilities from pathetically low to startlingly high.
Where else could they go, since an industrial society
Neither absorbs nor wants them in employment,
And since it were folly to confine them idly
To homes increasingly suffering from the blight
Of too little for their members to do for the common good?

So, selectivity has a new flavor, and in the public school
It means differentiation of opportunity to needs and ability,
And not elimination of those incapable
Of rather good intellectual achievement.
But can *this* school be a *good* school, teaching the skills
Of reading, talking, writing, listening, figuring;
Of history, and its allied areas
Of sociology, economics, and government;
Of science, of the arts, of vocations, of health;
Teaching the moral and spiritual values of life,
And the joy of sustained work toward worthy goals;

Eugene Youngert is Superintendent of the Oak Park-River Forest School District,
Oak Park, Illinois.

Teaching citizenship in a democracy
That governs itself as a republic?
It *can* be a good school and *is*,
For more often than some would believe,
It serves its patrons well.

However, to *be* a good school,
The public high school has had to understand,
First,
That it is profound truth that all men are created equal,
And, secondly,
That only equality of *opportunity*
Can serve an ideal so noble and grand.
It had to avoid the muddy thinking
That says contemptuously
That it is *foolish* to hold that all men are created equal;
And to learn, instead,
That it *were* foolish to hold that all are created *identical*.
In seeing its ideal clear,
It has had to know
That only through equality of opportunity
As broad as the equality of man
Can it fulfill the purpose for which society created it.

What are the dimensions of the public high school?
Why, the needs and abilities of its boys and girls.
And who *are* its boys and girls?
Everyone: the prospective
Lawyer, mason, carpenter, teacher, and clerk;
Housewife, gardener, bootblack, physician, and nurse;
Minister, janitor, motorman, salesman, and priest,
Merchant, inventor, and all who dwell within our land.
And who are they who dwell within our land?

On the one hand, they are the great numbers
Who are uneasy with abstract thought,
But who as masters at the polls
Determine the *persistence* of democracy, itself;
And, on the other hand,
Those who work easily with abstract thought
And determine what *progress* democracy shall make.
All deserve our pedagogs' respect,
For *all* contribute to the happiness of man.
All must have the equality of *opportunity*
That gives every normal and industrious pupil
An opportunity to succeed
In worthy and challenging tasks within his ability to do.

*There is the task of the public high school:
To bring to each: education according to his ability and need;
And it is fortunate that Democracy has this instrument without which
More than do would fall gullible prey to totalitarianisms.
That acclaim themselves the liberating gift of God.*

Most public high-school pupils are not college bound.
Some will leave before completion of the course.
Others will enter vocations upon graduation
Or go into trade, business, and sub-professional schools.
Many girls will marry young and assume
The serious responsibility of home making.
All will be fortunate if their high schools ministered to them honestly;
And that does not mean provision only of vocational education
But also of the general areas that I mentioned short minutes ago.

The minority of high-school youth *are* college bound.
They and all others who are capable of abstract thought on good levels
Need the best liberal education that they can assimilate.
They should be taught to read well and broadly,
To write and talk well, figure well, and to listen discriminatively;
They should have stimulated access to the field of history
And to its associated social studies,
To the contributions of other peoples, through their languages,
To science, and to appreciation of the arts;
They should have experiences generating respect for *all* people,
No matter in what honest way they earn their living;
They should be taught to *think*
As far as their maturing powers will permit.

I became a high-school principal in 1922.
In my time I have had respect and affection for high-school youth
As in happy, zestful fashion
They have pursued the path of opportunity provided for them.
I have seen them go directly into employment,
And I have signed transfers to college for thousands of them.
In fourteen years in my present position alone,
I have signed more than seventy-six hundred such college transfers.

In my years, I have observed the ideal of service to *all* youth,
As have colleagues in the public schools whom I have known.
I have sought balance by urging curriculum for all needs in the school.
For instance, our reading laboratory
Helps students to learn to read who are *poor* readers,
And it teaches *good* readers to read better.
Our senior expository writing is college level,
But we have other senior writing courses for students of lesser ability.
And so it goes throughout the school.

But for *all* we seek the same social attitudes;
The same ideals of conduct
That add up to the general ideal of Integrity;
The same awareness of moral and spiritual values;
The same joy in work.
That is the only basis upon which we who teach
Can live with ourselves,
And it is the only basis upon which we can serve
All the boys and girls whom we teach
And the nation for which we teach them.

LEWIS, NORMAN. *How To Read Better and Faster*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 1951. 432 pp. \$1.95. The book describes techniques that will prove valuable in developing reading ability. Every principle, the author states, "has been tested clinically with our students, and what each person does, to a certain extent, require an individual approach. The broad techniques described in this revised edition are those that were found to be most universally effective."

POSTGATE, RAYMOND. *Story of a Year: 1848*. New York 11: Oxford University Press, Inc. 1956. 286 pp. \$4.50. This is the story of that year—a year of high hopes, deep tragedies, and famous revolutions. It was also the year of the fantastic California Gold Rush, the year the Lord Bishop met disaster trying to quiet a journalist, and the year of the startling appearance of the Vermont sea-serpent.

Who was Augustus Egg? What did the New York Irish buy in the Bowery? How did the slave trade resist suppression? What effect did the cholera epidemic have on the people? How did the Presidential election go? How great was Emerson's popularity and influence? This was the year that a man called John Brown, a passionate and fanatic hater of slavery chose Harpers Ferry as his Valley of Ajalon. It was in 1848 too that the striking invention of the Idrotobolic Hat took place—a hat which Johnson and Company of Regent Street tried to establish as the indispensable headgear for men of position in London. John Jacob Astor lay dying in his palace in January, and May saw King Charles Albert endeavor to make himself king of north Italy, and also saw the emergency of the German state; in August the citizens of New York drifted in and out of the new sophisticated Ice-Cream Saloons, and autumn brought the last British revolt in history.

Techniques in Scheduling

CLAUDE C. WILLS, JR.

SOUTHWEST High School has approximately a thousand students in grades eight through twelve. Eighth-grade students come to us from seven elementary schools. In our eighth-grade classes, the only choice the student has is whether he will take instrumental music or physical education and vocal music. This information is received from the elementary schools, and our eighth-grade students are block-scheduled. The elementary schools are visited in the spring, and each student that will enter Southwest fills out a card giving pertinent information about himself and stating the subjects he will take the next school year.

EDUCATIONAL PLAN CARD

In the last quarter of the eighth-grade work, the eighth-grade students fill out an Educational Plan Card. The card shows all the subjects that the student expects to take through their entire high-school career and the years in which he will take them. All students above the eighth grade new to the school fill out this Educational Plan Card in the counselor's office when they enter.

Through the testing program and eighth-grade guidance program, both the teachers and counselors will be able to advise a student on what he should take and, by the spring of the eighth grade, he will have had the opportunity to determine his plans. Since the Educational Plan can be changed at anytime, we have the student fill out the card in pencil for this reason.

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

At the middle of the semester, each student in conference with his home-room teacher and on the basis of his Educational Plan Card and his current grades in the subjects he is taking makes out a list of the subjects he expects to take the next semester. Where a subject is not required but is elective, we require a student to give a second choice in case not enough students request the elective to form the class. We have found the McBee Punch Card, although not essential for this work, has several advantages.

TEACHER'S REPORT

Each home-room teacher makes a report from these schedule cards showing the number of pupils in her home room that request each subject. The person making the master schedule and teacher's assignments, in our case the principal, compiles these in a tally to determine the number of sections

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of each subject that will be needed. This is compared with previous years in order to determine whether dropouts will likely happen in a given subject.

From this tally sheet, the personnel required for the next semester is determined, and the personnel director notified of additional teachers needed or teachers it is possible to release. If less than fifteen students request a subject, the subject is not offered, and the second selection by the student is taken.

FINAL SELECTIONS OF SUBJECTS

Approximately one month before the end of the semester, a review of the McBee Card is made by the teacher, and each student is given a form with the subjects (required and elective) that he will take next semester. This he carries home for his parent's signature. At this time, the student is notified whether his elective will be available or not. The home-room teacher then punches in the McBee Card the final selection of subjects. At the close of the semester, if, on the basis of the student's final grades, some of the subjects must be changed, they are set aside with a note of the change and some of the schedule workers change the punching as well as the writing on the McBee Card.

FORMING THE MASTER SCHEDULE

All the classes in a given subject are scheduled simultaneously with our method, each class in a subject has essentially the same number of students. At any school, there is some big beginning point for the Master Schedule. For us, the beginning point is that all boys in the tenth and eleventh grades must take military the third period. By means of the McBee Card system, the schedule cards of all students taking military are separated and military is added on each one at the third period. In as much as this leaves in the tenth- and eleventh-grade girls only available for classes, we schedule tenth- and eleventh-grade girls physical education and tenth- and eleventh-grade girls music and home making. Also, we try to schedule most of our eighth-, ninth-, and twelfth-grade students in subjects classes this period.

Boys taking advance military also have to be scheduled for this third period. The section subjects that they would likely be taking cannot be scheduled for this third period. In as much as the band is needed with the military department, it is also scheduled this period.

Beginning with out twelfth grade, we next schedule the other subjects. Cards of students taking a given subject in which there will be only a single class section are separated, and the subject and period entered on the card; simultaneously, the subject is assigned to a teacher at the same period. After all single-section subjects for the twelfth grades are scheduled, we schedule all double-section subjects both for the students and teachers. These are scheduled by pulling all cards for these subjects and by separating them into two equal sections. The period number and subject are

entered on the student's schedule and on the master schedule. The number in the section is entered on the master schedule under the period and teacher's name. In a similar manner, those subjects offered in three or more sections are scheduled. Generally, when we reach the three- or more-section subjects, we find that they fit in certain periods because that is all that is available in the student's schedule.

There usually are guiding factors in determining what period subjects are to be taught. For instance, in our case, trigonometry is taught by our assistant principal who also has charge of attendance. To care for attendance, she needs first-, second-, and sixth-periods. She is also an excellent person in the cafeteria during lunch periods which comes fourth period. Most students taking trigonometry also take military which occupies third period; therefore trigonometry must come fifth period. At times it makes no difference, but when the period for one subject is chosen, often times, automatically the period for another is selected.

Sometimes, it is impossible to work out a given schedule. In this case, the student is called on the phone and asked to come to the school and make another selection. After the twelfth grade is complete, we pass to the eleventh grade. We find that sometimes many eleventh-grade subjects have been placed at a given period because they are being taken by twelfth-grade students. These are scheduled first.

After all twelfth-grade students have been scheduled, we schedule eleventh-grade students in the same order as we did twelfth-grade students, taking single-section classes first. We proceed in this manner to tenth-, ninth-, and eighth-grade sections. The master schedule and the student's schedule are made up simultaneously in this manner. We record, when we schedule a class, the total number in the class; and by totaling all of the classes for a teacher, we determine the teacher's total load before meeting the class.

During the summer, by means of the punch card system, the school secretary makes up class rolls for each section of every subject, and these are furnished the teachers at the beginning of school in the fall. On returning to school, the home-room teacher makes a copy of the student's schedule from the McBee Card for the student. The home-room teacher retains the McBee Card as a permanent record of the student's schedule until the next semester.

BALANCING CLASSES

We get the total teaching load for a teacher by adding the numbers assigned on the master schedule. Where this is excessive, a student is shifted from the McBee cards by separating all taking the subject and selecting the correct number to shift and making this change. By the end of summer we have balanced classes on paper. When the students enter in the fall, there is still some balancing to be done, due to late entries, summer school, etc. This can usually be accomplished in the first week of school.

Testing Economic Knowledge and Attitudes

LEWIS E. WAGNER

THIS article¹ describes, and analyzes the results of a Background-Development Test in basic economics.² The test was developed at the State University of Iowa and administered to a sample of 157 participants in Workshops on Economic Education during the summer of 1953. Part I summarizes the reasons for dissatisfaction with the present status of economic education and describes the nature of Workshops on Economic Education—a new educational movement designed to improve economic understanding. A statement of test specifications and sample characteristics is presented in Part II. General observations with respect to test results is contained in Part III.

I. THE WORKSHOP MOVEMENT

Interest in economic education is neither recent nor novel. For many years people have been concerned, in one way or another, with imparting economic knowledge to students and the body politic. Within the past decade, however, the largely dormant interests of many groups have been activated and more sharply focused on this problem than at any time in the past.

To a large extent the greatly intensified interest in economic education is attributable to a pronounced and widespread conviction that the study of economics is being neglected by our public schools and institutions of higher learning. Criticism of current practice in this field may be traced to three basic kinds of complaints: dissatisfaction with what is being taught under the label of economics; reservations upon the way in which the subject matter is being taught; and the feeling that not enough economics is being taught.

¹This article is a somewhat condensed version of *Testing Economic Knowledge and Attitudes, Studies in Economic Education*, Number 3, Bureau of Business and Economic Research, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. Copies of the complete Study are available from this Bureau at \$1.00 per copy.

²The Iowa Background-Development Test described in this article is a product of the joint efforts of Clark C. Bloom, Associate Professor of Economics; John H. Haefner, Professor, College of Education; and Lewis E. Wagner, Research Associate, Bureau of Business and Economic Research, all of the State University of Iowa. Dr. Robert L. Ebel, Director, University Examination Service, rendered invaluable assistance by his critical review of the test and by the processing of test scores. The kindly and acute criticisms of Dr. C. Woody Thompson, Director, Bureau of Business and Economic Research; and Dr. Paul R. Olson, Head, Department of Economics, contributed greatly to the validity and clarity of the Study. Incidentally, items making up this test will be made available in a future publication of the Bureau of Business and Economic Research, State University of Iowa.

Probably the best evidence of concern about the present status of instruction in economics is to be found in the expressions and activities of the Joint Council on Economic Education. Formally organized in 1949, the Joint Council has taken as its major objective the improvement of economic education on the secondary level. From the outset, leadership of the Joint Council has been purposely kept in the hands of professional educators and economists. As a result, the activities of the national, the latter, state and regional councils, have been blessed with academic respectability.

An exploratory study by high-school teachers, representatives of state departments of education, educationists, and professional economists disclosed three facets to the problem of improving instruction in economics in junior and senior high schools. There was general consensus that the typical high-school curriculum gives scant attention to the study of economics as professional economists would define the field. Appropriate materials and techniques of instruction were found to be lacking. And finally, there was a feeling that many teachers in secondary schools had little if any training in economics.

Seemingly what was needed was some medium whereby high-school teachers, administrators, curriculum specialists, and economists could be apprised of the problem, appropriate materials and techniques of instruction could be developed, and teachers could be given a refresher course in basic economics.

The Joint Council approached this problem by sponsoring, or assisting others in sponsoring, workshops on economic education. Typically, these workshops are conducted over a three-week period sometime during the summer months. Fellowships covering tuition and room and board are granted to secondary-school teachers and administrators. In addition to a regular workshop staff drawn from the fields of education and economics, speakers and consultants from research foundations, governmental agencies, business, agriculture, and labor organizations are also incorporated into the three-week program. The usual procedure is to devote morning and evening sessions to gaining an understanding of the American economic system and how it functions. In the afternoon meetings, small groups work on problems of curricular organization, pedagogical technique, and the preparation of materials to aid teachers in their work. Evidence of the widespread acceptance of these workshops is provided by the rapid expansion of the movement. From a modest beginning of one workshop in 1948, the program has grown until in 1953, there were 31 workshops sponsored by colleges and universities throughout the country³

As is true in many instances where a new idea meets with immediate success; the early development of the workshop idea was characterized by an emphasis on problems associated with organizing, financing, and co-

³For a more complete description of the origin, growth, and activities of the Joint Council see, *Annual Report, Joint Council on Economic Education*, N. Y., 1953; *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, March 1950; and *Improving Economic Understanding in the Public Schools*, Committee for Economic Development, March 1952.

ordinating workshops on economic education. Within the past year or two, however, attention has shifted to searching out ways of evaluating the impact of this new educational movement and improving the offerings of the several workshops.

Apart from the numbers of people involved, the teaching materials and guides written by workshopppers, and the local activities stimulated by a teacher's participation in a workshop program, there is little in the way of tangible yardsticks by which to measure the value of the movement. Basically, the objective of workshops on economic education has been to improve the quality of instruction in economics and thereby raise the general level of economic understanding. This, of course, is a long-run goal, the achievement of which cannot be measured in terms of the present. Nevertheless, workshop directors who must plan and conduct these programs are confronted with the necessity of evaluating immediate results and discovering ways of improving their particular offerings.

Unfortunately problems of program improvement and evaluation of results have been intensified by a paucity of information concerning the knowledge of economics and attitudes on economic issues possessed by participants when they come to the workshop, and the changes in knowledge and attitudes effected by the workshop experience. Obviously, the type of workshop program that will make the greatest contribution to improved instruction in economics is closely related to the nature and relative importance of various weak spots in current practice. Moreover, the efficacy of the workshop technique, as compared with other approaches to the problem of economic education, rests, in part at least, on the immediate achievement of a concentrated three-week program. Any appraisal of this type requires some measurement of the ability of teachers attending workshops and how much improvement is registered during the course of the program.

The Background-Development Test, developed by staff members of the Iowa Workshop on Economic Education, is an experimental attempt to determine the economic competency and attitudes of persons attending programs of this type. It is hoped that this analysis will contribute to the more general evaluation of the workshop and suggest some guide lines for improvement in future workshop programs.

II. TEST SPECIFICATIONS AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The Iowa Background-Development Test is designed to measure knowledge of content in economics and attitudes on certain economic issues. It contains 91 items, all of the multiple-choice form. Content questions account for 69 of the 91 items. The remaining 22 items are designed to determine attitudes in approximately the same areas of economics which constitute the focal points of the content items. More specifically, test objectives are as follows:

1. To determine the extent to which workshopppers are familiar with the nature and scope of economics, the types of problems with which economists are concerned, and the nature of the solutions which may be expected.

2. To determine the extent to which workshopppers are familiar with content material in economics: (a) factual data, (b) terminology, (c) relations among economic variables, and (d) generalizations and basic principles.

3. To determine the extent to which workshopppers are able to apply their knowledge in the solution of economic problems.

4. To determine workshopppers attitudes with respect to specific economic problems and/or issues.

5. To determine the immediate effect of the workshop program upon attitudes and knowledge of content. These effects are to be measured by administering the test both before and after the workshop experience and then comparing test responses. The element of practice, of course, will be present and results must be interpreted in the light of this limitation.

Results of the test are to be used mainly as a basis for improving future workshop programs, more fully revealing the magnitude of the task confronting workshop directors, and indicating the kind of results which may reasonably be expected from the typical three-week workshop program.

The test attempts to cover those areas of economics which are of greatest importance in providing a basis for intelligent choice by the body politic. Accordingly, emphasis is placed on those areas of economics which most frequently give rise to controversial questions of public policy. The following represent the areas of economics in which a working knowledge on the part of the general public is felt especially desirable:

1. *Nature of economics*—Knowledge of the nature and scope of economics, the types of problems with which economists are concerned, and the nature of the solutions which may be expected to flow from economic analysis.

2. *System of prices and markets as an instrument of economic organization*—Knowledge of how a system of prices and markets can be used as a method of organizing the economic activities of society, and how such a system performs the basic economic functions.

3. *Prices, income, and employment*—Knowledge of the basic concepts and analytical tools necessary for an understanding of the forces underlying fluctuations in the level of prices, income, and employment, and the conditions favorable to economic growth.

4. *International trade*—Knowledge of our position in the global economy, the economic justification of international trade, and the problems involved in maintaining international balance.

5. *Money, credit and banking*—Knowledge of the causes and effects of changes in the quantity and velocity of money. Knowledge of the role played by the banking system in expanding and contracting the money supply.

6. *Public finance*—The intelligent citizen should have the ability to view economic problems in terms of aggregates and be able to choose between alternative lines of economic policy on this basis rather than in terms of the impact of policy on small segments of the economy. This involves a knowledge of the inflationary, deflationary, and distributional effects of: (a) various types of taxes, (b) the level of taxation, (c) expenditure levels and patterns, (d) deficit, surplus, or balanced budget policies, (e) the size of the national debt, and (f) changes in the size of the national debt.

7. *Factual data and economic terminology*—Attempts to measure the extent of knowledge with respect to data and terminology pervade the test as a whole and cut across the content areas noted above. Ability to think clearly about controversial questions of economic policy is predicated upon a knowledge of factual data relative to certain basic economic quantities such as the level of national income, the size of the Federal debt, the percentage distribution of income, *etc.* Finally, the informed citizen should be able to use and to understand some of the more fundamental terminology of the field, particularly that technical vocabulary most frequently used in media of mass communication.

Sample Characteristics

Technically, those workshops and examinees involved in the testing program cannot be considered as a predetermined or carefully chosen probability sample. The particular selection of workshopppers to be examined was the result of a voluntary decision on the part of workshop directors. Very simply, the procedure was to send each director a copy of the test. Accompanying the test was a cover letter explaining the experiment and requesting all directors to co-operate in the program by administering the test to participants in their respective workshops.

Six directors responded to the request. From these six workshops, there were received 157 answer sheets (for each administration of the test) which were suitable for analysis. In 1953, there were 1,385 teachers participating in 31 economic education workshops. The group tested, therefore, accounts for 19.4 per cent of all workshops, and 11.3 per cent of all workshop participants in 1953. Geographically, workshops included in the test group are Iowa, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania. Workshops in the southern states and in the Far West are not represented.

For purposes of this analysis, it will be assumed that the test was given under substantially the same conditions in all workshops. To the extent that directors were able to conform to suggestions for administering the test, examinees were tested on both the first and last days of the workshop. They were not told that they would be tested a second time. Correct answers were not reviewed after the first administration of the test. Nor was there any conscious attempt to "teach the answers" during the course of the workshop. Testing time was two hours.

Because workshops and participants were not selected on the basis of a probability sample, considerable caution must be exercised in drawing inferences about other workshops and high-school social studies teachers generally. Ideally, we would like to infer from the "sample" the general level of competency in economics possessed by high-school social studies teachers as a group. It would also be desirable if, on the basis of the improvement in mean score registered in the six workshops tested, we could infer the probable improvement for workshops generally.

Without a properly drawn probability sample from the appropriate universe (*i.e.*, all high-school social studies teachers), the only basis for such inferences is purely and simply an assumption that, in terms of the relevant characteristics, the group tested is representative of the universe. Unless the original training and intelligence of the group tested is representative of the universe, performance on the first administration of the test offers no reliable guide to the competency of social studies teachers generally. Moreover, improvement in mean scores cannot be interpreted as a measure of typical improvement attributable to the workshop program.

Another uncontrolled variable improvement in mean score was the precise nature of the workshop program. Although printed outlines of workshop programs exhibited marked uniformity, it is quite possible that relevant differences in the various offerings were present.

The test used in this experiment attempts to measure knowledge in economics as professional economists would define the field. One of the major issues in economic education, however, has revolved around what constitutes the subject matter of economics. One view places heavy emphasis upon consumer education and problems of personal finance. A second viewpoint pictures economics as a study of why an economic system is necessary, what functions it performs, and how economic activity is organized and guided in various societies. To the extent that workshops participating in the experiment organize their programs on the basis of the second viewpoint, improvement in mean scores registered for this group cannot be extended to workshops emphasizing a somewhat different point of view.

There is another important issue in economic education which undoubtedly tends to influence the nature of workshop programs and hence limits the applicable range of sample results. In recent years people have tried to place the blame for ineffectual learning of economics on many doorsteps. Some have contended that the major obstacle to effective learning of economics is poor teaching technique. Some complain of inadequate textual materials. Others argue that the major difficulty is attributable to and in adequate grasp of content by the teacher. Regardless of the validity of these various contentions, it seems plausible that directors espousing a particular point of view will tend to favor that viewpoint in building their particular program. For those workshops emphasizing consumer education, pedagogical technique, and the preparation of materials, one would

certainly expect a smaller gain to mean scores on this particular test than would be true of workshops giving a major share of attention to the study of economics as economists define the field.

Considered in light of the method used in selecting examinees, the prevalence of these issues suggests the possibility of a biased "sample." More specifically, there may be some correlation between the kind of workshop program offered and those workshops not participating in the experiment. Two considerations suggest the possibility of a correlation of this type. First, a director's appraisal of the test and its usefulness will be influenced by the kind of approach to economic education with which he is in sympathy. Second, a director may not participate because he feels that his particular program is unlikely to yield a significant improvement in the kind of achievement tested and he simply wants to avoid the possibility of invidious comparisons.

Care must also be taken in evaluating results on the attitudinal portion of the test. Ideally, the sample should be representative of the universe in terms of those characteristics which influence attitudes. Evidentially attitudes on economic issues are related, at least in part, to such things as age, sex socio-economic status, and rural-urban classification. Unfortunately, adequate data on relevant group characteristics are not available.

In analyzing and interpreting test scores, the limitations mentioned in preceding paragraphs certainly need to be kept in mind. On the other hand, it should not be inferred that data for the six workshops tested are of no value in drawing inferences about what performance might be expected from other workshops and social studies teachers.

It is always difficult to ferret out the reasons for particular behavior. However, there is little reason for suspecting that many of the factors which influence a teacher's decision to attend, or not to attend, a workshop are closely correlated with general intelligence or competency in economics. And in cases where decision factors are related to economic competency they may be offsetting—e.g., one factor may pull in some teachers without much ability in economics while the same, or another equally prevalent consideration, may attract those with considerable ability.

Maintaining one's eligibility for salary increases and meeting state certification requirements by attending a subsidized program of only three-week duration are undoubtedly attractive lures for many teachers. Previously planned vacations and attractive summer job opportunities, however, exclude some teachers who otherwise would have attended.

For those teachers whose summer time is not committed, and who are not under institutional or legislative pressure to take additional college work, their awareness of the workshop program and their level of interest are probably significant. Both considerations may be related to general intelligence, and the latter may be correlated with competency in economics. However, the fact that a person is intensely interested in a subject, or feels a need for additional knowledge in an area, does not establish a persistent bias in either direction. Lack of interest in the workshop program,

for example, may be attributable to either superior ability in economics or little if any knowledge of the field.

Unquestionably, the lack of a carefully drawn probability sample seriously limits the reliability of inferences from the 157 examinees to all social studies teachers, and from the six workshops to all workshops. Unfortunately, a completely satisfactory sample is precluded by the very nature of the workshop movement and certain obvious limitations of the testing program. As a practical matter the ideal cannot be achieved. Nevertheless, there is a pressing need for information about teacher competency in economics and the immediate impact of economic workshops. Since there does not seem to be any clear-cut reason for suspecting a persistent bias in terms of economic understanding or general intelligence, inferences based on the heroic assumption that the workshops and examinees tested are representative of the appropriate universes are probably better than no information at all. Studies investigating the characteristics of all social studies teachers and those teachers attending workshops would, of course, be desirable for many other problems and would indicate more clearly the limitations of data collected in this experiment.

III. TEST RESULTS

General Observations

Any general commentary must be predicated on some standard of performance. In the testing program under review, technical aspects of the field were excluded. Questions on terminology were restricted to terms frequently used in media of mass communication. Emphasis was placed upon basic concepts, a knowledge of which is necessary to claim even a nodding acquaintance with the subject matter. In the opinion of those economists participating in the job of test construction the questions do not require a mastery of economics beyond that needed by high-school teachers charged with the responsibility of teaching in this area. In fact, they are of the opinion that for a teacher to do a first-rate job (assuming pedagogical competence), a much higher level of competency than indicated by a high score on this test would be required.

To be sure, those who picture economics in terms of consumer and community education may contend that the test is far too technical, that it requires a type of knowledge not necessary for effective teaching of economics (as they would define the field) at the secondary level. Obviously what is involved here is a question of educational objectives. If the objective is to teach individuals how to spend their time, money, and energy so as to bring their expressed wants into harmony with their considered needs within the limits of their individual incomes;* if emphasis is to be placed upon the management of personal financial affairs; and if getting the student to understand and appreciate the city in which he lives is viewed as an important part of the bill of fare, then the Iowa Back-

*Troelstrup, Archie W., *Consumer Problems*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952, p. 101.

ground-Development test in basic economics is not only "far too technical," it is virtually irrelevant. On the other hand, if the objective is to provide students with a basic framework of economic analysis so that they can identify and understand the current problems of society as well as those that may arise in the future, and if the purpose is getting students to understand why an economic system is necessary, what functions it performs, and how economic activity is organized and guided in the United States, then the test is far from being "too technical."

In the opinion of the writer, both objectives are important and desirable. They are not, however, identical. With a limited amount of classroom time, one objective is more fully realized largely at the expense of the other. Regardless of one's personal appraisal of the relative importance of these objectives, only the latter is appropriate in judging the difficulty or technicality of this test.

Since most questions had four responses, one might expect that, even for a group with no knowledge of economics, about 25 per cent of the group would choose the correct response to each question purely on the basis of chance. Assuming a valid and well-constructed question, a correct response percentage less than 25 per cent would be suggestive of misinformation.

On the first administration of the test, there were twenty-one questions (30 per cent of the content questions) on which less than one fourth of the examiners chose the correct answer. It may be contended that because only elementary concepts were tested, and that examinees were high-school teachers in the social studies area, a standard of only 25 per cent is too low. If, instead of 25 per cent, we raise the figure to 50 per cent, we find that there were 40 questions (nearly 60 per cent of the content questions) on which this standard was not met. In either case the level of performance indicated by these figures is somewhat alarming.

On the second administration of the test there were twenty-three per cent of the questions on which less than one fourth of the examinees chose the correct answer, and 45 per cent on which less than one half answered correctly. Although this indicates some improvement, the level of performance after the training period is still somewhat depressing. The mean score on the second administration of the test was 35.8, only slightly over 50 per cent of the 69 content questions.

Questions missed most frequently fell into three categories. Questions on resource allocation were by all odds the area of poorest performance. Examinees had virtually no understanding of how a system of prices and markets can be used to organize the economic activities of society, and how a system of this type performs the basic economic functions. Questions about money, banking, and debt made up the second poorest area of performance. Many of those taking the test pictured commercial banks as simply intermediaries between savers and borrowers. No small number believed that commercial banks act as economic balance wheels, dampening booms and stimulating activity in time of depression.

The third poorest showing was made on the block questions dealing with the nature and scope of economics, the types of problems with which economists are concerned, and the nature of the solutions which may be expected to flow from economic analysis. Few of the teachers taking the test saw economics as a problems of choice arising out of scarcity of resources relative to wants. Consider, for example, the before and after percentage responses to the following question.

Which of the following is the best illustration of an economic problem? The index of difficulty in these problems was .13, and the index of validity was .17. Seemingly, most of the group think of economics primarily as a technological or engineering problem.

Per cent		
Before	After	
14	7	a. How can the quantity of wheat produced on a given plot of land be increased?
80	84	b. What is the relationship between physical inputs (e.g., amount of seed, man-hours, land, machinery) and physical outputs (e.g., bushels of wheat)?
6	9	c. Shall wheat or oats be produced on a given plot of land?

On the basis of the low validity index it might be argued that this was simply a poor question. However, one qualification of a discrimination index needs be kept in mind. Item validity is a measure of the extent to which a given question discriminates between those who understand the material over which they are being tested and those who do not. The validity of the test as a whole is assumed. That is to say, it is assumed that those who understand the material will score higher than those who do not. The discriminatory power of any given item, therefore, is based on the number who scored well on the test, and also answered the given item correctly, relative to those who scored poorly on the test. Thus, a question which is either answered correctly or which is missed by high and low groups alike will have a low validity index. In some instances low-item validity is attributable to poor test construction. In other cases it stems from the fact that the question was either too easy or too difficult.

For this particular item, the low validity rating is probably the result of a question which, for these teachers, proved extremely difficult (the index of difficulty was .13). Obviously a question which no one can answer will not discriminate between those who know and those who do not. If our sole purpose was to rank workshop participants for some purpose or other, this would certainly be a poor question. However, this particular question is designed to test the knowledge of a very elementary and important concept—the nature of an economic problem. It is significant, therefore, that less than ten per cent of the social studies teachers taking this test were able

to answer this question correctly either before or after the workshop program.

Teachers in the test group had less trouble with questions covering the topics of foreign trade, inflation, and economic stability. Implications, of course, predicated on the extent to which the test group reflects the abilities of other social studies teachers, the population from which future workshop participants will be drawn. Assuming that the test group is not atypical, their performance suggests several modifications in future workshop programs, modifications which in light of teacher needs might serve to make the offering more functional.

On the basis of test results, it would seem that a major reason for ineffectual teaching of economics is inadequate teacher preparation in content. The writer would not argue that these teachers were in any sense masters of pedagogical technique, but, since all had met certification requirements and had had several years of teaching experience, it is doubtful that their inadequacies in this area approach their deficiencies in command of content. It may well be that teachers are guilty of poor pedagogy, although in the writer's opinion the case is frequently overstated. But if these teachers know virtually nothing about economics, a workshop program placing major emphasis upon improved teaching technique would seem to be a poor allocation of resources.

Inadequate textual materials have been frequently cited as an important reason for ineffectual teaching of economics. Consequently, many workshops have allocated a substantial portion of their time to having teachers prepare materials for use in their classes. The flood of mediocre resource and teaching units which have resulted bears bitter testimony as to the futility of this approach. It is simply asking too much of high-school teachers, with little or no training in economics, to acquire in a couple of weeks' time a knowledge of content sufficient to do a respectable job. This task demands the combined services of a highly trained economist, sensitive to the difficulties of teaching economics at the secondary-school level, and an equally well-trained educator with a sincere concern for content and disciplined thinking. It would seem that the time normally devoted to materials preparation by workshop participants could bring a higher rate of return in teaching effectiveness if allocated to other uses.

Both of these suggestions—concerning preparations of materials and teaching technique—focus upon the division of time between work in pedagogy and content. The third suggestion revolves around the relative emphasis which should be placed on various economic topics. If the weaknesses revealed by the test group are typical of social studies teachers generally, it would seem that a somewhat heavier emphasis upon the areas of resource allocation, money, banking, and debt, and methodology, with perhaps slightly less concern with international trade would be more effective in raising the over-all level of performance.

If the performance of the 157 teachers participating in this program is in any way indicative of the abilities in economics of social studies teachers

generally, the situation is indeed alarming. Undoubtedly a few fellow economists will contend that the results of this experiment merely illustrate what they knew all along: that what is needed is a good rigorous principles course. The inference, however, is unwarranted. Certainly there is no conclusive evidence that students exposed to a "good rigorous principles course" would fare any better on a test of this type.⁵

More importantly, however, the typical principles course has seldom been planned with the non-specialist in mind. The function of the course is frequently regarded as one of providing a foundation for advanced courses in economics. On the other hand, high-school social studies teachers do not, and are unlikely to, associate themselves professionally with the field of economics. They are, and will continue to be, educationists rather than economists. The journals to which they subscribe and the professional meetings they attend are in the field of education, not economics.

This state of affairs suggests the need for a course specifically tailored for the non-major. The purpose of the course should be to provide a framework with which the future teacher can identify, analyze, and assess the relative importance of economic problems and policies. The writer has no illusions as to the probable degree of success which can be achieved along this line. Exposure to the kind of course suggested will not assure that future teachers will be able to handle adequately all economic problems. Even an approximation of this goal would require considerably more training in economics than is suggested here.

At the same time, the writer must agree with those who contend that the typical introductory course, designed with the major uppermost in mind, presents more concepts and technical apparatus than is necessary or even desirable. This suggests that one of the basic difficulties is making decisions about what content should be included in an elementary course for the non-specialist. Hard choices must be made. Moreover, they must be made with the expectation of criticism from both educators and economists. Some educators will contend that much of what has been included is far too abstract and, hence, non-functional. Fellow economists will insist that vital parts of the body economic have been ruthlessly amputated. An even after we face up to problems of decisions on content, ways must be found to simplify and to teach successfully that content.

Although the results of this test suggest that some improvement in economic understanding can be achieved through the workshop medium, the end result is likely to fall short of any reasonable standard of performance. It should not be inferred that the writer believes workshops on economic education are a waste of time and resources. Quite the contrary. They undoubtedly stimulate interest and are probably conducive to further

⁵Undoubtedly some of the examinees did have the advantage of a principles course. It may be contended that, given the current content of economics, the course they took was sadly out of date. Paradoxically, however, resource allocation, the focal point of courses some 15-20 years ago, was the area of poorest performance.

study on the part of the teacher after she returns to the classroom. Certainly workshops can serve to make teachers aware of their inadequacies in economics. As a result, these teachers are likely to approach topics in economics with considerably more humility than is frequently the case. Economic workshops are also a vehicle for discussing and analyzing textual materials and techniques of instruction under the guiding hand of competent specialists in economics and education. Problems of curricular organization can be attacked and basic educational philosophy reviewed. Frequently, local activities such as community forums will be stimulated by a teacher's participation in a workshop program. Finally, it would be all too easy to underestimate the value of a medium which permits and encourages members of such diverse groups as business, labor, agriculture, government, economics, and education to play an active role in seeking ways to help high schools give better economic instruction. Workshops provide a meeting ground for members of these various groups to focus their attention and respective talents on a common problem. Programs of this type expose people with narrowly defined interests and associations to fresh ideas and new ways of looking at economic problems. Honest disagreement becomes respectable. Within such an atmosphere real economic education has at least a fighting chance to take hold and grow.

DOWNES, R. B. *Books That Changed the World*. Chicago 11: American Library Association, 50 East Huron Street. 1956. 200 pp. \$2.25. This refutes the notion that books are futile, harmless, or innocent. It demonstrates that they are dynamic, vital forces, capable of changing man's life in basic ways—sometimes for good, sometimes for evil. The author selects sixteen books which actually did wield immense power from the days of the Renaissance until now; tells how each came into being; gives word-portraits of the authors and their times; and describes how the course of human existence was affected by the books.

God Bless the CRMD'S

JOSEPH BELLAFFIORE

WE HAVE three classes of CRMD (Children with Retarded Mental Development) youngsters in our school. They are a genuine source of co-operation and pleasure in the life and activities of our other classes. Gradually but surely, these exceptional boys and girls have earned a sense of achievement and social status that has made them happy members of the Willoughby Junior High School family. Under the guidance and encouragement of their well-qualified teachers,¹ they have become integrated in various areas of the curriculum, social living, and special services in our school.

In addition to departmental periods in their planned "core" work in basic knowledges and skills, they travel to regular classes in industrial arts and home economics, to health education and the library, to music and assembly periods. They mingle in the cafeteria and playyard and participate in the General Organization and after-school recreation center. These are all fairly standard procedures in schools where the policy permits as wide an integration as facilities permit. Our regular classes and teachers welcome the groups with sincere camaraderie and understanding.

What really marks our CRMD's as superior is their unusual record of special services rendered for the benefit of all of us. One class takes full responsibility for handling all new books. Upon arrival, the publishers' shipments are carefully checked against requisitions; stamped; labeled; counted; and delivered to the proper department chairmen. Another class has complete charge of all school supplies and regularly prepares inventories, canvass the staff for current needs; assemblies requested materials; and delivers them to the individual teachers. A squad of girls conducts school-wide drives; such as the Junior Red Cross appeal, clothing for Save the Children Federation, and gifts for the Wyckoff Heights Hospital. A squad of boys runs the mimeograph machine which publishes our school newspaper, *The Buzzer*, and handles stencils submitted by teachers and chairmen. Another squad runs the Rex-o-graph machine which issues daily coverage assignment sheets for the assistant principal, special schedules for assembly days, agenda for department meetings, and guidance circulars to the staff. Two boys handle teachers' subscriptions to newspapers and magazines, making daily deliveries and collecting once a month. Two girls assist in the clerks' office in sorting mail for placement in teachers' boxes, in stamping outgoing letters, and in serving as messen-

¹Miss Helen Burke, Mr. Arthur Goldman, Mr. Anthony Nicolosi.

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gers. A squad of boys and girls acts as school photographers in snapping personalities and events; such as, the Annual Health Council, assembly speakers, the Dance Festival, *etc.*

Let me tell you briefly about one project that proved very worth while. A mixed class of boys and girls made numerous household articles—such as leather keytainers, bookmarks, copper-foil pictures, potholders, sandals, *etc.*—and conducted a sale. From the small margins of profit, they realized enough money to hold a party with cake, candy, ice cream, and soda pop. They played records, danced, and sang together. During Open School Week, these youngsters exhibited numerous samples of handicraft in the showcase in the main corridor. Such success sweetens their taste for school and helps them find some vision of their coming adulthood.

As to courtesy, dress, and manners, these pupils can serve as models for the rest of the school. They open the door to the classroom politely for visitors, greet them with a "Good morning!" and stand ready to serve.

I just want to tell one little story about the girls. About a year ago, some girls returning from lunch brought back dolls which they claimed someone had given them in a nearby factory. Suspecting theft, their teacher reported the matter to me; and I visited the factory to investigate. The forelady confirmed their story, saying that they had looked so eagerly and longingly at the dolls that she had given them one each. She introduced me to the manager, and I asked him whether he would donate a few more so that the girls could dress them up and take them to the children's ward of a nearby hospital for Christmas. He generously provided us with 150 dolls. We conducted a contest to see who could dress them best. The results were truly wonderful. When these girls, accompanied by the Glee Club and G. O. officers, visited the hospital and distributed their handiwork, the true glow of the Christmas season surrounded them with glory.

A word about the boys, now. Three of them are being considered for opportunities to participate in an experimental program in which they obtain special vocational training under supervision and, meanwhile, carry on their regular school program in the morning and on other days.

I have said nothing yet about the resourcefulness and sympathetic personality of their teachers, nor about the wholesome classroom atmosphere they have created in their own individual way. I take off my hat to these three topnotch teachers as I pray God to bless the CRMD's.

Administrative Leadership Can Improve Science Education

CHARLES TOBIAS

MUCH has been said and written about the critical shortage of scientific manpower facing our nation at the present time. Responsible government officials as well as leaders in scientific and industrial organizations have underlined the imperative need for sufficient numbers of well-trained and competent scientists, technicians, and engineers. This represents a challenge to the secondary schools.

Scientific progress has been a vital factor that has helped the United States attain its present position of world leadership. Although we constitute a relatively small proportion of the world population, we produce nearly half of the world's goods and services and enjoy the highest standard of living. Our high productivity has been the result of the application of scientific discoveries to industrial production. In the past twenty-five years there has been rapid progress and new developments in transportation, communication, nuclear energy, and industrial technology.

Scientists promise even greater wonders in the years ahead. However, this promise may be seriously delayed or remain unfulfilled unless immediate action is taken by educators to reverse ominous trends such as these:

1. Each year Russian schools graduate more than twice as many engineers as American schools do. At present, the need for engineers in American industry far exceeds the supply.
2. The curriculum of Russian schools requires greater emphasis on science and mathematics than is found in most American secondary schools.
3. In the past forty years American secondary schools have experienced a decline in enrollments in advanced sciences and mathematics. In the same period, there has been a rapid increase in the total high-school population.
4. There is at present a severe nation-wide shortage of well-trained high-school teachers of science and mathematics. Many teachers have left the profession for better paying jobs in industry. Faced with this situation, administrators have employed sub-standard teachers or have withdrawn courses in chemistry and physics as well as advanced mathematics. This has occurred in many of our smaller high schools.

The professional organizations of scientists, engineers, and science educators view this situation with alarm and are seeking to alert the public to the seriousness of the matter. As educators, we must begin at once to guide

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capable young people into careers in the sciences, engineering, and science teaching. We will continue to require their services to build, maintain, operate, and repair the multitude of new machines and electronic devices which are rolling off the assembly lines in great quantity every day. In the tense world situation, our survival as a nation may be dependent upon the extent to which we are able to maintain and advance our scientific and technological superiority over Russia.

Recent studies have shown that prospective scientists were influenced by their science teachers to plan a career in science. Science competes with many other activities and interests that occupy the time and attention of young people. They will tend to choose those activities which interest them the most and which offer satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment. Could it be possible that poorly trained science teachers may fail to stimulate and guide students into choosing advanced sciences? While the science offering has diminished, other areas of the high-school curriculum have been expanded by the addition of new courses, such as driver education, ceramics, dramatics, and family life. It has become easy for many capable students to meet graduation requirements by electing those subjects which are less demanding and are more functional.

What can high-school principals and administrators do in order to insure a greater supply of scientifically trained manpower for the years ahead? Several suggestions are offered below:

1. Now that you have been made aware of the urgency of this problem, initiate a study of the situation that exists in your school and community with respect to the teaching of science and mathematics. Have enrollments been dropping off in advanced courses? What can be done to reverse the trend? Perhaps it is time to revise the syllabus and include more up-to-date topics. Organize committees of teachers and citizens to find the facts and to propose solutions.

2. It is suggested that the study should begin with the instruction in science and arithmetic offered in the elementary schools and continue through the high schools. Have you discovered serious omissions; or do you find duplication and overlapping? Is the investigating committee well-informed about recent standards and policy recommendations pertaining to education in science and mathematics? Several helpful references will be found at the conclusion of this article.

3. What can be done to arouse student interest in further scientific studies? Does the course of study appeal to pupil interest and curiosity about their natural surroundings? Are current teaching methods being used? Do students have an opportunity to perform scientific experiments and to develop skills in laboratory procedures? Are you making use of the scientific resources of the community for field trips and investigations? Try giving greater publicity to the activities and achievements of future scientists. Assembly programs and bulletin board displays on scientific topics will arouse considerable interest and enthusiasm. Does your high

school have chapters of the Future Scientists of America and the Future Teachers of America?

4. The science teacher needs your help and encouragement if he is to do a better job. Is the science laboratory well equipped? A good science program requires ample supplies and equipment for demonstrations and experiments. Does your budget provide these necessities?

It takes time to set up laboratory equipment for demonstrations and experiments. After use, it takes time to dismantle the equipment, clean it, perform needed maintenance, and store it for future use. These are duties not generally shared by teachers of other subjects. Is this taken into consideration when assigning duties to science teachers or when considering teaching loads?

Do science teachers get an opportunity to know individual pupils well? This will depend upon the size of science classes. In large, overcrowded classes pupils receive less individual attention. There is less time for the science teacher to give advice and assistance to pupils working on individual projects and experiments.

Colleges, universities, and industries have been very generous in offering summer fellowships and workshops for science teachers. Have you encouraged your science teachers to take advantage of these opportunities for in-service growth? More science teachers might be induced to take advantage of these opportunities if boards of education would recognize their value and offer additional pay and alertness credits to participants.

5. How effective is your guidance program? Motivating talented students to choose a career in science is an important guidance function of the science teacher. How does your school discover and encourage science talented youth? It is important that they be discovered early and receive your assistance in planning an educational program that will enable them to gain admission to a college and equip them for success in collegiate studies.

6. Is your school library well supplied with books dealing with all science areas? Are there sufficient books and science magazines for the varied individual needs, interests, and reading levels of science students? Many recent publications suggest simple experiments and demonstrations which may be performed at home with the use of inexpensive equipment. These are very stimulating to young scientists.

Does your school have a curriculum library with recent books, periodicals, and catalogues pertaining to science education? These are valuable resources for alert science teachers in search of new ideas, experiments, and demonstrations which will add interest and variety to the science class.

Taking immediate action to implement these suggestions will do much to encourage more young people to choose careers in the sciences, engineering, and teaching. This will help to insure an adequate supply of teachers as well as sufficient scientific manpower for industry and research. More of our citizens will have a better understanding of new scientific developments and the many contributions of science to our American way of life.

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FINE, BENJAMIN, and VIVIENNE ANDERSON. *The School Administrator and the Press*. New London, Conn.: Arthur C. Croft Publications. 1956. 120 pp. (plastic binding). \$2.50; 5 or more copies, \$2 each. One of the most important jobs of a school administrator is to keep the public informed. Today, more than ever before, citizens expect from their schools an active, continuing program of public information. To help in this vital task, the authors have written a straightforward, down-to-earth book telling schoolmen the how and why of press relations. On page after page, the authors show how you can *decrease criticism* and *increase support* by using their tested practices of sound journalism. Superintendents and school board members will find this important new book an invaluable aid for launching a new community-relations program—or for revitalizing an already existing one.

Vitalize Your High School PTA

ROY C. BRYAN
and MRS. MILDRED BEISEL

FORTUNATE is the high school which has students, parents, and teachers working together for school improvement. Many things that are good for the health of a school can and do happen when parents and students, as well as teachers and administrators, feel a responsibility for bringing about improvements and can use established channels for this purpose.

Unfortunately, the PTA is little more than a name in some high schools. Its meetings are poorly attended and its influence for good is often extremely limited. Whether the organization in a given school is weak or strong, thought should be given to increasing its effectiveness. This article offers the following suggestions for vitalizing the PTA on the high-school level: (1) transform the PTA into a PTSA, (2) place administrative responsibility in an executive board, (3) emphasize participation, and (4) provide for continuity. Each of these suggestions will be discussed in turn.

TRANSFORM THE PTA INTO A PTSA

High-school students are not members of the Parent-Teacher Association in most schools. Where this is true, the first and most important step that needs to be taken is that of transforming the Parent-Teacher Association into a Parent-Teacher-Student Association. This change can improve the association in many ways. Among these are improved attendance and improved opportunities for accomplishing its purposes.

Good attendance at meetings is important because an organization can have little influence on, or get help from, members who remain away from meetings. In most schools, attendance at elementary school PTA's has almost invariably been better than attendance on the high-school level. This was true also at our high school until students were made a part of the association. Since then, parent attendance has been excellent. Before the students were made a part of the PTA, they not only had no interest in the association, but also they actually discouraged their parents from going to PTA meetings. After the students were made a part of the association and had a part in planning its meetings and in getting the members out, many of them urged their parents to attend. Needless to say, parents are more inclined to go to meetings that they are supposed

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to attend when their sons and daughters go and expect their parents to do the same. Increased attendance increases the opportunities to accomplish the purposes of the organization.

One of the main purposes of such an association is to solve school problems. It should be obvious that problems involving the students can be solved with more facility when the students are present to participate in formulating solutions. Not only do they have more firsthand knowledge of many school problems than do parents, but also they are ready to accept and support solutions that they help to formulate.

When parents and teachers, without the participation of students, strive to create the kind of schools that will produce good citizens, they are overlooking a real opportunity. Giving students, in co-operation with parents and teachers, experience in using methods by which citizens in a democratic society attempt to solve problems on the local level is a valuable procedure indeed. Many of these young people will, soon after leaving high school, obtain jobs, pay taxes, and start raising families. They will soon be voting in school board elections and for special village projects to provide additional tax money for both buildings and for teachers' salaries. What better preparation can high-school students have for these important responsibilities than participation at this stage? Can there be much doubt that active participation in a good PTSA will give them attitudes and knowledge of school needs and procedures that will influence their behavior now and in the future? Is this not one of the best opportunities for the schools to build an interested and loyal clientele for the future?

PLACE ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY IN AN EXECUTIVE BOARD

Proper planning for PTSA projects and activities calls for a small planning group that is committed to meeting regularly. This group is the heart of the organization and should have power to speak for the association. If it does not have power to act for the association, routine items of business must be presented to the association as a whole. The latter procedure has killed many a PTA. Many have sworn off attendance at PTA meetings after being bored by prolonged discussions and quibbling over changing a minor point in the constitution or spending a few dollars for something of little interest to them. Such time-consuming decisions should be made by the executive board and reported to the association by the board secretary. The association meetings should be reserved for the discussion of vital school issues and major policy decisions.

Among the powers or duties the executive board should have are: (1) set dates and arrange programs for general association meetings, (2) propose school improvement projects, (3) appoint sub-committees to make studies and recommendations, (4) approve committee reports and decide on next steps, (5) issue reports, (6) appoint delegates to PTA conferences and conventions, (7) decide how the dues should be spent, (8) revise the constitution by a two-third vote after due notice, and (9) transact other items of business in harmony with the association constitution.

At our high school, the executive board of the PTSA meets monthly and is composed of fifteen persons—parents, teachers, students, and the principal of the school. The student members are elected by the student council of the school; the faculty members are elected by the faculty; and the parent members are elected by all association members. In carrying out its duties, this board strives to get help from all association members. It puts many of them to work. It emphasizes participation.

EMPHASIZE PARTICIPATION

Accent must be placed upon participation in any well-conceived effort to increase the vitality of the PTSA. By "participation" is meant getting parents, teachers, and students to serve on committees, take part in meetings, propose and help plan projects, and do other things that enable them to have a part in bringing about worth-while improvements.

"One of the important ways by which people are persuaded to participate in a certain cause or in a particular form of behavior is that of giving them a particular part to play in this cause or by giving them an opportunity to engage in activities which lead them to identify themselves with the kind of behavior desired.

"The person who does identify himself with a cause or ideal which he believes to be of great importance and value is able to think highly of himself. . . . It is true that his participation in any kind of cause may, and often does, bring him recognition and new experience, but in addition to these satisfactions or without them, he feels a sense of personal worth. . . ."¹ Parents certainly are justified in feeling "a sense of personal worth" for serving effectively in a cause as important as the education of their sons and daughters.

If members are to have opportunities to participate, the association must be busy getting many worth-while things accomplished. The opportunities for participation are many in number. The program for general meetings must be planned. In preparation for each meeting, there are problems to be solved: Should the meeting be based on the report of a committee? If so, how should the report be prepared and presented? Should an authority or authorities be asked to serve as speakers or consultants? Should any of the school music groups be given a part in the program? Have adequate plans been made by the committee on publicity, hospitality, and refreshments? Of course, all meetings will not be centered on a serious school problem. Even if the purpose of a program is to have students introduce parents to their teachers, the participation of many persons in making careful plans is needed to guarantee a successful event.

Some examples of questions that have served as topics for programs at our school are: How can we improve our school? Are our students getting a good education? How can our health program be improved? What standards should govern social events held at school and in private homes?

¹Merl E. Bonney. *Techniques of Appeal and Social Control*. Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Publishing Company, 1936. pp 275 and 306.

Do the criticisms appearing in current magazines apply to our school? Sometimes several topics are scheduled for consideration on the same evening. For example, at one recent meeting members divided into three interest groups devoted to these topics: Choosing Your High School Subjects, Choosing a Vocation, and Choosing a College. Few, if any, seniors or their parents have interest in the first topic. However, this topic is of great interest to freshmen and their parents.

These general meetings are limited to three or four each year. Each is carefully planned (down to the last pie for refreshments) and well advertised. It is taken for granted that all parents, teachers, and students should attend and the great majority do attend. No distinction is made between those who have and those who have not paid dues (\$2 per family). The campaign of the membership committee to collect dues is completed early in the school year and is not a part of any general meeting.

Nearly every project undertaken by the association calls for the participation of many members. Examples of projects undertaken by our executive board follows:

1. *Opinion Polls*

Only a small committee is needed to prepare a postcard questionnaire to parents for the purpose of learning what kind of committee assignment (if any) each parent prefers to have. Only a small committee is needed to poll the parents and students on their preference for one or more of the many problems and topics proposed for consideration at the next meeting.

The participation of many students and parents is needed when carrying out a poll on a question like, "How Good Is Our School?" Different student-parent committees can be assigned to carry through these different stages of the project:

- a. Preparing a questionnaire after a study of similar questionnaires used by other schools
 - b. Administering the questionnaire to students, parents, and teachers
 - c. Summarizing the replies
 - d. Reporting the results in bulletin form and orally at an association meeting
 - e. Making school improvements as a result of the information gathered.
- In this instance, the poll revealed a need for a better program in helping students choose a vocation. As a result, the procedures used in helping students choose a vocation were promptly revised.²

Students are more effective than parents in initiating some polls. An example is the poll on desirable social standards recently undertaken at our school. The first step was the appointment by the PTSA executive board of a committee of sixteen students and a faculty adviser. This committee constructed a proposed set of standards that should be observed by all students. The standards relate to use of the family car, dating hours, use of the telephone, and home parties. This student committee then met with a

²Golda Crisman and Roy C. Bryan, "Student-Parent Opinion Influences a Vocations Program." *The Clearing House*, 29: 353-355, February 1955.

parent committee to consider revisions of the report before submitting it to the PTSA executive board. The executive board then appointed a committee for the purpose of getting the opinions of all parents and students on the acceptability of each of the standards. The final step was the publication of a recommended guide in the form of a series of social standards that met with the approval of the great majority of both parents and students. Those who depart from it will know that they are out of harmony with majority opinion.

2. Series of Visitation Days

After making a study of a similar program in a neighboring school,³ a committee received approval by the executive board of a proposal to schedule a minimum of six parent visitation days during the year. The plan included these points among others: (1) twenty to twenty-five parents will be invited each time, (2) a special attempt will be made to include all parents of seniors, (3) invitations will be extended by phone three weeks before the visitation date, (4) a letter with instructions will be mailed one week in advance to those who accept, (5) a parent is not to visit the class of his son or daughter unless both parties agree to this, (6) the day is to include the following: (a) brief orientation meeting in a designated room to start the day and a group discussion and evaluation period to close the day, (b) class visitations, and (c) an individual conference in which each parent discusses with a staff member the cumulative record of his son or daughter. The plans included lunch in the cafeteria. Parents responded so enthusiastically to this project that it has become a regular part of our program annually.

3. Promotion of Attendance at School Events

A Boosters' Committee was formed by the executive board for the purpose of increasing student and parent participation in school activities of all kinds. The Boosters' Committee, which is responsible to the executive board, makes plans and appoints sub-committees of students, parents, and faculty members for each area of activity such as, football, basketball, spring sports, school play, and music programs. Each committee has representation from parents, teachers, and students. The football committee procedures are typical of those used by the others. It is in charge of advertising and the sale of season tickets; it sponsors a parents' night and the homecoming; it plans the decorations and between-halves activities; and it plans the football dinner for the players at the end of the season. It appoints a series of sub-committees to do the detailed planning and work.

Examples of other kinds of projects undertaken by the PTSA executive board are a series of weekly radio programs, traffic control reports, recommendations regarding group insurance, and teacher recognition. Working together on these projects has rewards in addition to school service. The

³Eugene S. Thomas. "Visitors for a Day Learn About Their High School," *Nations Schools*, 53: 63-4, June 1954.

parents and students really learn to know each other and mutual understanding and respect are the outcomes of all the planning and hard work. Each succeeding group of parents, teachers, and students who work together will find themselves faced with new ideas, new problems, and a need for revision of old plans. A closer relationship between school and home is the inevitable result of their working together.

PROVIDE FOR CONTINUITY

Year to year effectiveness of any organization can be increased through provision for continuity. The knowledge and experience gained one year should be carried over and used the next. This is not likely to happen without careful planning.

One procedure that is helpful is a provision in the constitution that will guarantee some continuity in personnel. The president might be required to serve a year as president-elect before becoming president. Each member of the executive board should serve for two years and only half of them should be new in any one year.

Each new executive board member should be given a checklist which is kept up-to-date by each succeeding secretary. Such a checklist serves to remind executive board members of the things that need to be done and when they should be done. Examples of items taken from one checklist follow:

1. Minutes of all board meetings should be sent to all board members. The minutes should include the names of the board members present and also those who were absent. In addition to the minutes, include a proposed agenda for the next meeting and the date, time, and place of the next meeting. These should be mailed a week or ten days prior to the next board meeting.

2. Early in the year, settle on two major projects for the year.

3. Have the budget committee propose a budget at an early meeting.

4. Have the program committee propose programs for the year.

5. At an early board meeting, select members of special or standing committees.

6. Have a master list made of all parents. The list should indicate the name and grade level of students in school (if more than one) so that a parent will be phoned only once when the list is used for that purpose.

7. The treasurer must pay the following dues: (1) five cents per member to the city council, (2) fifteen cents per member to the state Congress of Parents and Teachers, and (3) five cents per member to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers (send to the state address).

8. Select, at one of the first meetings, a day each month for board meetings. Also, select dates for association meetings. Before making these final, check with the Library Date Bureau for clearance. Avoid conflicts with the city council meeting dates and the State Education Association Conference.

9. Two voting delegates should attend the city council meetings which are held the first Thursday of the month, five months each year. The city council executive board meets the fourth Monday of every month. The president or his representative should attend. The secretary of the city council is.....

10. In February, the president should appoint a nominating committee to nominate officers and board members for the following year. They will nominate one person for each office and obtain the consent of the nominee before submitting his name publicly. The principal should be a member *ex-officio* of the nominating committee.

11. Send the slate of the new officers to the state office in April.

12. At the last board meeting of the year, the officers and members of the newly elected board (for the following year) should be guests. Along with the invitation to this joint meeting, new board members and officers should each receive: (1) a copy of the minutes of the last meeting, (2) a list of the names, addresses, and phone numbers of new board members and officers, (3) a copy of the constitution, (4) a copy of the revised checklist, and (5) a proposed agenda for the meeting.

In addition, plans should be made to have each continuing committee benefit by the experiences of the committee members in previous years. Only half of the personnel of a committee should change annually. A committee should start the year with the benefit of a written report on the committee activities and procedures of the previous year and have an obligation to revise and improve this report before passing it on to the members who will serve the following year.

Continuity is aided by having the retiring and the newly elected executive board members hold a joint meeting before the close of a school year. At such an orientation meeting, it is impossible to give new members any more than a limited picture of the association possibilities. However, they can catch the spirit of this important organization. They can learn that this is a joint venture of students, teachers, and parents; that success depends upon the effectiveness of their participation; that the executive board is the heart of the organization; that they have traditions of accomplishment to live up to; and that they have an obligation to maintain the continuity of accomplishment. If the executive board members, thus orientated, represent the best leadership in the school, it is safe to assume that things good for the school will happen during their term in office.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

The 41st Annual Convention

of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

will be held in Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

Using Special Subject Teachers As Resource People in a Core Program

ROBERT E. KREBS

HOW can special subject teachers assist in the core program at the secondary-school level? What administrative arrangement will make possible their participating in the core program? Often secondary schools are reluctant to initiate a core program because of the complexity of a schedule—a schedule which will enable all core classes to meet simultaneously and will provide for all special subject teachers to be available for these core activities.

Much has been written about the core program on the junior high-school level. Here an attempt will be made to present the ways that special subject teachers are used in a core program which is now in operation on the senior high-school level. In order that the reader can better understand how special subject teachers are used as resource people in a core program, it might be expedient to define the terms that will be used in this article.

The term "core program" means many things to many people. In this article it refers to the type of curriculum now in operation at the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School of University of Florida. At P. K. Yonge, a core class consists of a grade section of 30 students, meeting for a block of time longer than one period, who are concerned with solving personal and social problems by teacher-pupil planning, structuring, and evaluating.

The term "special subject teacher" refers to teachers in a core program who do not teach a core class, but rather teach some specific subject area or an elective, such as mathematics, science, art, industrial arts, languages, or home economics. These teachers are expected to be directly involved in the core program, even though they do not teach a specific core class.

The term "resource people" is used to mean any persons who can be brought into the core class for the purpose of giving specific information to the core class, or to help them work in groups to solve problems. Special subject teachers may be used as resource people at any grade level, from first through the twelfth year. For example, in a conventional one period history class or social studies class, the topic of atomic energy arises, the teacher feeling incompetent to discuss this subject may slip over it. On the other hand, a core teacher could call on the science teacher or any other qualified person, as a resource person, to discuss the history, development, and implications of atomic energy with the core class.

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In some schools, one of the main problems in getting special subject teachers involved in the core classes as resource people seems to be the lack of a workable schedule. To evolve such a schedule would allow better co-operation among the entire staff as well as other resource people concerned. Usually the schedules of core classes and the special subject classes would conflict. One way to overcome this problem is to schedule all core classes to meet at the same time of the day. At P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, the core classes, which are required courses, meet in the first part of the school day—ninth and tenth grades for the first two hours. The remainder of the school day is devoted to special subject classes which are mostly offered as electives. While all core classes are meeting at the same time, all the special subject teachers are "free" to work with the core groups as resource people, since no special subject classes are taught during the first two periods of the school day.

Following is the daily schedule used at the P.K. Yonge Laboratory School for the purpose of allowing all core classes to meet at the same time of the day—thus allowing time for the special subject teachers to participate in the core classes as resource people.

<i>Grade Level</i>		<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>
Period 1	8:35	core	core	core	core
	9:30				
Period 2	9:35	core	core	core	core
	10:30				
Period 3	10:35	core	core	special subject	special subject
	11:30				
Period 4	11:35	special subject	special subject	special subject	special subject
	12:30				
Lunch	12:30				
	1:10				
Period 5	1:15	special subject	special subject	special subject	special subject
	2:10				
Period 6	2:15	special subject	special subject	special subject	special subject
	3:10				

This daily schedule not only allows time for the special subject teachers to act as resource people in the core classes, but also gives the students an opportunity to select a variety of special subject electives. In grades 11 and 12 this schedule offers greater choice of electives according to the students' interests and goals.

Another problem which arises is that of communication between the core teachers and the special subject teachers. All teachers have much to do and find it difficult to plan together and discuss what they are doing in their classes. How can each know what the other is doing? How can each fit into the plans of the other? At P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, a bulletin board, centrally located and kept up to date, publicizes the activi-

ties and schedules of the whole core program. Moveable name tags for each special subject teacher are placed on pegs beneath the space belonging to each core group. Thus, anyone at any time may see exactly where special subject teachers are helping in the core program. Another technique for facilitating communication is to arrange meetings between core teachers and special subject teachers, either scheduled for a specific time of the school day or arranged as needed.

Still another solution may be for the special subject teachers to visit the different core classes and take part wherever and whenever they feel they can contribute something worth while. At P. K. Yonge Laboratory School, special subject teachers visit the different core classes and take part in the proceedings whenever they have something to contribute. When the special subject teachers show interest, it is very likely that they will be asked by the core teacher to come in and help in many ways as resource people.

Most problems arising in the use of special subject teachers as resource people in the core classes are a joint faculty responsibility and might be solved by a better understanding of the purposes of the over-all core and school program in a particular school situation.

Some of the special areas in which the science teacher at the P. K. Yonge Laboratory School was asked to serve as a resource person in various core classes were as follows: space travel, flying saucers, jets and rockets, physics of the automobile and driving, demonstration of the automobile carburetor and ignition system, the endocrine glands and their affect on personality, weather and making weather instruments, careers in science, scientific evidences concerning alcohol and narcotics and their uses, and many other special topics that arose in the area of science under study.

In what other specific ways might special subject teachers aid core programs? At P. K. Yonge Laboratory School they work with small groups within the core class, assist on field trips, help plan new units, and share in many of the other actual teaching situations. In addition to the ways mentioned, special subject teachers assist core teachers and their classes in their programs concerned with driver training, guidance, health, physical education, and other curricular activities.

It seems that the success of using special subject teachers as resource people in a core program depends on the availability (scheduling) of special subject teachers as the resource people, practical communication between teachers, the willingness of special subject teachers to participate in a core program, the willingness of the core teachers to ask and involve special subject teachers in their program, and a mutual understanding of the goals and purposes of the core program.

In conclusion, special subject teachers *are* being used at P. K. Yonge Laboratory School in various ways as resource people in the core program. This can be made possible in other schools when there is a common understanding of the core program and when an administrative arrangement is devised which would make it possible for special subject teachers to participate in the programs of the core classes.

Sanitation in the School Lunch Program

ROSLYN WILLETT

"SCHOOL lunch programs today constitute a major fraction of the public feeding load. . . In the United States one out of every eight meals eaten in public on a school day is eaten in school. For the fiscal year 1954, approximately 56,000 public and private schools participated in the National School Lunch Program. Under this plan, 1.7 billion meals were served during the school year to 10.1 million children. These figures indicate that one out of every three children enrolled in schools in the United States eats his noon meal in school."

This was the introduction to a paper detailing the findings of a survey of school food services presented to a joint meeting of the American School Health Association and the School Health Section of the American Public Health Association by Dr. Charles Wilson and Mr. Eric Mood, both of Yale University. The survey was conducted by the American School Health Association, graduate public health students, and sanitarians of the Texas State and New Haven City Health Departments.

A total of 795 schools in all states answered the questions. To obtain an adequate cross-section, half the survey was assigned to elementary school; the other half was split between junior high and high schools. About a tenth were parochial schools, the rest publicly supported. Furthermore, instructions were to select neither the best nor worst schools in each district. Even so, a wide range of practice was uncovered. The Public Health Committee of the Paper Cup and Container Institute, Inc., provided the funds under which the study was conducted. It also co-ordinated the preparation and tabulation of the survey forms.

In the course of gathering data on sanitation practices and use of the school lunchroom as a "life situation" for education of the youngsters, the survey gathered about as complete a picture of school lunchroom operation as is available. This provides considerable perspective on the whole school lunch program, and a statistical base for future studies.

Of the schools queried, more than 3 in 100 had a student population under 100. More than 30 in 100 had a student population between 100 and 499. But the median had a student population between 500 to 1,000. Of the lunches served in these schools, practically all are the Federal Type A complete lunch, and most schools prepare them in their own kitchens.

On the question as to types of food service, 697 to 795 reported cafeteria service. Seventeen had food service in classrooms from food carts; 20 had

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food service in classrooms without carts. A surprising 80 had dining rooms with service. In 119 of the schools that replied, students eat at their desks.

Asked how many was the average number of lunches served, the schools responded this way:

<i>No. of Lunches</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>
Less than 20	2
20 to 99	102
100 to 299	357
300 and over	306
Not stated	28

In other words, many more than half served fewer than 300 lunches a day. In this connection, it is interesting to note that formal data from contract caterers in industrial plants shows that at a customer average of 300, it becomes economically feasible to install food preparation and serving equipment, and hire personnel for food service.

A large number—69 out of 795—reported that the school lunches were prepared in a central kitchen and sent to outlying schools.

Overcrowding in the schools and the need for very fast service were indicated by the data on the time allowed for lunches:

<i>Length of Lunch Period</i>	<i>No. of Schools Reporting</i>
20 to 29 min.	156
30 to 39 min.	339
40 to 49 min.	162
50 to 59 min.	27
one hour	74
over one hour	14
indefinite	11
not stated	12

Thus, many more than half the children had less than forty minutes in which to get to a lunchroom, select their food, pay for it, find a place to eat, eat it, and get back to their classroom.

Another indication of overcrowding is found in the data on how many lunch periods are scheduled. Eighty-eight schools of the 795 reported four or more lunch periods; 180 said lunch was served in three shifts; 252 served two shifts, leaving 259 serving one shift.

It was found that children in the schools, and sometimes their parents, play a major role in the actual preparation, service, and cleaning up in school lunchrooms. Of the 795 schools questioned, 50 reported that children assisted in food preparation; 368 (more than half of those answering the question) said that children assisted in serving food; and 524 indicated that they aided the cleaning-up process. Parent participation in the school lunch program is more generally involved with financial aid, but 59 schools also reported that members of the Parent-Teachers Association aided in the actual lunch service.

Some sanitation problems indicated by the survey were in the area of inadequate dishwashing, poor protection of food on display from airborne infection, and the fact of rodent and insect infestation in some schools. The fact that dishwashing practices are less than ideal in a large number of schools was shown by the following data. Six out of every one hundred schools lacked running hot water. Thirty-five per cent had neither dishwashing machines nor the three-sink dishwashing set-up required by most health departments in the absence of a machine. In fact, 31 per cent were found to be using one-or-two-compartment sinks or dishpans for dishwashing and sanitizing.

Dishwashing efficiency was not investigated. But there are possible pitfalls even where equipment is considered. For both machine and manual dishwashing, dishes are not clean unless they are (1) washed, (2) rinsed, and (3) sanitized. Very few machines will do a complete washing job without pre-scraping. This is so, even if there is a strong stream of water and a good detergent, and relative motion between the dishes and the water stream. Where the dishwashing method is an immersion method, with neither a strong jet of water nor relative motion, (as in a 3-compartment sink), it's even more likely that small particles of food will be left on the plates. These particles, though temporarily sterilized by a sanitizing rinse, are readily subject to recontamination by airborne bacteria, which find bits of food an ideal medium for growth and reproduction.

There was no investigation to determine how many of the machines had a timed cycle. The wash-rinse cycle in a dishwashing machine must be automatic to prevent pushing dishes through too fast when the need for them is great.

On the question of the final sanitizing rinse for dishes washed either by hand or by machine, 656 schools of the 795 queried said they used hot water. The rest used chemicals or live steam. But of those using hot water, only 508 reported use of a booster heater. That implied that 148 of the school lunchrooms relying on hot water for sanitizing purposes might be misplacing their confidence. Water in most hot-water lines, particularly in schools, is not usually over 140-150° F. to make certain that it will not burn people who use it for hand-washing; it must be "boosted" to sanitizing temperature (at least 170° F.) by an auxiliary heater.

Certainly, wherever dishes are washed by hand, even in a 3-compartment sink, the job is time-consuming. This may be one reason for the use of paper service.

Of those who answered the question, more than half used paper for food service. Of that number, the vast majority used paper cups and portion cups. Paper cups and containers were reported used for juices, desserts, milk and milkshakes, salads and side dishes, main dishes, water, coffee, hot chocolate, and soft drinks, in that order. In these cases, it is evident that paper cups provide a sanitary beverage service, and relieve the load on bussing personnel and on the dishwashing machine.

There were other sanitation problems, not associated with dishwashing. These were more a matter of storage and display of food. Only a little more than half of the operations used glass or plastic shields for food displays. Their lack means that food is exposed to droplet infection. A stray sneeze or cough from a child can easily contaminate food under those circumstances. Dirty little hands can transmit the dirt to a thoughtlessly fingered cupcake. In the area of refrigeration, another sensitive spot, almost all the schools had mechanical refrigerators. But only about two thirds had thermometers in them. Therefore, only that number could know day-by-day how reliably their refrigerators were maintaining storage temperature necessary to prevent the growth of micro-organisms. That's a mechanical problem. There's another refrigeration problem: fish, meat (especially ground meat) and dairy products require low temperatures. So do prepared foods such as salad and sandwich mixtures and creamed dishes. When a refrigerator is loaded with a large amount of food, it may be some time before these foods reach proper holding temperatures. During that time, micro-organisms multiply rapidly.

A sizeable minority of the schools—almost one half—had some problems with insects; and almost one third had a rodent control problem of some degree. The extent to which such creatures are responsible for contamination cannot be judged exactly. But Dr. Wilson and Mr. Mood point out, in their paper based on the survey, that at least a few food poisoning outbreaks can be traced directly to them.

About six in seven school food services are inspected by a health department official. About seven in eight give a health examination to workers in the food service department. About five in six food service departments offer training in sanitation for personnel.

Obviously, most schools follow good sanitation practice, despite many difficulties and shortages of both facilities and staff. Provision of a sanitary environment for youngsters is a complex matter, not susceptible to simple solutions. But plainly, where labor is short and not highly trained, where volume of service doesn't warrant high labor costs, and where equipment is below standard, paper service is playing an important role in insuring sanitation in school food service.

MARK THIS DATE ON YOUR CALENDAR

The 41st Annual Convention
of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
will be held in Washington, D. C.

February 23-27, 1957

Building Good Public Relations with a Summer School

ELEANOR M. GLEASON

ONE of the loudest complaints against present-day secondary education is that it isn't tailored to the needs of the greater number of students. The critics maintain that our secondary schools' curricula tend, even in this day, to serve mainly that small group of students which is preparing for college. Usually it is difficult for educators to produce satisfactory evidence as to results in later living situations—results brought about by special courses of instruction or training. This fact is particularly unfortunate as, obviously, no one factor is as important in establishing constructive and propitious relations with the people of the community as is an understanding of the effectiveness of the school.

Danbury educators got an exceptionally good opportunity to give the people of their city this very kind of concrete evidence when Davis and Geck, a subsidiary of the American Cyanamid Company, requested a unique summer training school a few years ago. In this summer school the modern business machines, the well-trained instructors, and the public relations-minded administrators, all worked with executives of Davis and Geck to provide a complete office staff for the company. Davis and Geck was, at that time, moving from Brooklyn, New York, to a new plant in Danbury, Connecticut. Because of the distance factor, only a few of the office girls were moving with the company. As office workers were at a premium then, the task of staffing an office with inexperienced workers was one worthy of Hercules.

Three of the Davis and Geck executives put their heads together and came up with the clever idea of selecting and paying a group of high-school graduates to attend a special summer school in the high school so that these girls might be trained in the particular area of work into which each was to enter. Furthermore, each trainee was to become acquainted with the background and products of the company. The plan also set aside part of each girl's weekly pay so that this money could be paid in a lump sum to those trainees who would actually go to work in the plant's office in the fall.

The Davis and Geck men had considered other ways of acquiring and training their office help during these months while the plant in Danbury was being completed. But, when these men realized that the high school

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had everything needed—the office help, experienced teachers, and physical equipment—these businessmen offered to pay for the use of the facilities. However, the Danbury school administrators, realizing the value to Danbury of such a reputable firm as Davis and Geck in providing tax dividends and employment resources decided to forego the money payment and set up the summer training school with the advice of the Davis and Geck executives for the good of the students and the community. Later Davis and Geck presented the business department with an electric typewriter.

Then the business education teachers, one for machines and one for stenographic studies, worked with the Davis and Geck personnel expert in selecting the thirty-six high-school seniors who were most willing and most able to train for some aspect of the office work. All the graduates-to-be who had been selected by the personnel expert were given the *Nelson Denny Vocabulary Test*, the *Minnesota Clerical* and the *Wonderlic Intelligence Test*. The findings from these tests along with suggestions from the teachers who had the classroom background with which to evaluate and recognize the aptitudes of the students—both factors were used in placing each trainee in a particular training position. It was planned that the training position would feed right into an actual office position when the Davis and Geck office at Danbury opened in the fall.

Next came the work of orientation. First the instructors in the summer school were invited to visit the plant in Brooklyn where they were shown the true meaning of the word hospitality. Later, after the summer school had begun, movies were run to show the trainee the work of their company and to acquaint them with some of the activities of the parent organization, the American Cyanamid Company. This information was supplemented with firsthand views of the plant in Brooklyn where the trainees were taken by car. Later, at intervals, the department heads of the company came out to the high school and explained the functions of each department. In this way each of the trainees was able to get a real knowledge of the particular line of work in which she was interested plus an integrated view of the work of all departments.

These diversions, the movies, the car trips, and the talks from executives, all were excellent ways of maintaining in the trainees a high plateau of interest during those hot summer months. Every now and then the Brooklyn office sent up batches of their work for the girls to complete. This work along with the remedial training in skill techniques kept the girls quite busy. Undoubtedly the nearness of the school to Lake Candlewood was some help in keeping fresh the trainees' enthusiasm in the school.

As the whole office was to be staffed by these novices, it was realized that instruction in attitude was almost as important as training in the office work. To help bridge the gap from school girl to working girl, classes in office behavior and personal grooming were made important parts of the curriculum. Moreover, some of the adult supervisors came from Brooklyn to lead discussions concerning desirable norms of office conduct.

The summer passed and the opening day of the Davis and Geck plant in Danbury arrived. That day the very modern office bristled with signs directing the new personnel to every department. A special buffet luncheon increased the warm feeling that the Danburians had been building up for this company. Best of all, the trainees fitted into their jobs smoothly and the first day's work proceeded with a minimum of difficulty.

A year later, thirty-three of the original thirty-six girls were still working in the Davis and Geck office. There is the best kind of proof of the effectiveness of the educational methods used by the business departments of Danbury High School. There was the rare instance where the classroom teachers had the opportunity to prove dramatically and decisively to the community that their brand of education certainly did produce results, and mighty good results, in a practical later-living situation. The co-operation of the school administrators with the Davis and Geck organization in organizing a well-integrated training program was a high point in good public relations in Danbury.

SHAW, P. B. *Effective Reading and Learning*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 1955. 457 pp. \$2.95. This book is intended not only to capture the interest of the reluctant reader and of the student of low motivation, but also to meet the needs of the industrious student determined to perform most effectively in college. The lessons are therefore designed to be both comprehensive and stimulating. Each skill and attitude is described in detail. Specific procedures are recommended, and, in anticipation of individual differences among the various prospective readers of the book, procedures are suggested for special circumstances. Furthermore, the reader is given an insight into why certain procedures are recommended and how he can apply them to his various college assignments.

The presentation of each topic consists of expository text followed by illustrative and practice exercises and tests, including detailed interpretations. Part One, "Effective Reading," describes the reading techniques that will enable a student to get the most out of reading in general and his college assignments in particular. Part Two, "Effective Learning," discusses the learning skills that will lead to success in college courses. The importance of vocabulary development is stressed in the text and a special supplement appears in the Appendix. Actually, this book is a course. It sets forth an established course that has been taught for many years by the author and his colleagues at Brooklyn College to thousands of students, who have been both matriculated and non-matriculated students and hence represent various levels of reading and learning achievement.

Public Relations Through Parent Meetings

SPURGEON B. WUERTENBERGER
and EDWARD R. CUONY

IT IS an established fact that the best type of school-community relations is based on two-way communication. The school and the community must interchange information to function at optimum efficiency in a dynamic society. We are aiming toward this and hope eventually to achieve continual two-way communication.

At Geneva High School, we have set up goals for the school and our students. These aspirations and our curriculum will eventually be reflected in the community as a whole. The public has a right to know all about our program and our aims for their children. We feel that we have a duty to inform the community, and especially the parents of our students. We feel that the information should be presented through the medium of parent meetings. Through the use of this medium, we could be fairly certain of securing some reaction from the parents..

We had several objectives in mind when we first started our program of parent meetings. The prime objective was and continues to be our desire to inform the public of what we are doing and what our purposes are. We had certain information which we felt was important for our parents to be familiar with and to understand. Through the parent meetings the public also had an opportunity to indicate what their own goals were for their children, and what it was they were attempting to do for their children. The parents had an opportunity to present their problems in dealing with the adolescent in an out-of-school environment. The information dispensed to parents was helpful to them and the information brought to us by the parents was helpful to the teacher in better understanding the children. The inter-change of information and discussion of common problems was directed toward the major job of the school—instruction and the understanding of children.

It is interesting to note the evolution of our parent meetings. The first parent meetings were held in the afternoon in the form of a formal meeting followed by the serving of light refreshments. The parents of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors met on different afternoons. One of the shortcomings of these meetings, which we discovered very shortly, was that very few fathers were attending these meetings. It was evidently a poor time for the breadwinner of the family because it meant taking time off from work to attend. Many mothers also found it difficult to attend after-

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noon functions because of work commitments, the pressure of home duties, the preparation of the family dinner, and younger children in the household which required their hiring a "baby sitter" if they attended. We also discovered that many of the women's organizations held afternoon meetings. Everyone who has been in the school business realizes that, when the end of the day comes, teachers and other youth workers are tired—hardly at their best for a meeting with the public. The end of the school day simply was not a time conducive for good meetings. The afternoon gatherings were abandoned because there were so many deterrents to a good meeting at this time.

Recognizing the limits of the afternoon meetings, we felt it was necessary to change our plans. It was decided to invite the parents of all the students, regardless of class affiliations, to an evening program which would be of interest to all of them. The parents of all students met in an opening assembly and then followed an abbreviated schedule identical to the one followed by their children during the day. In this way we simulated the student's school day, and the parents had an opportunity to see what their children did and also meet each teacher. Each teacher had an opportunity in a very few minutes to discuss problems applicable to that particular subject class. This portion of the program proved quite satisfactory and interesting to parents.

This general idea we have retained to this day and will probably continue to use it for the next few years at least. We found some disadvantages to this procedure. Many of the parents wanted to ask specific questions regarding their children and their problems. Obviously there was not sufficient time for this. Parents were encouraged to ask specific questions when they met the teachers after the program during the social hour. The large meeting of all parents of the students of all classes did not prove to be satisfactory because the interest and problems were much too diversified to make an interesting and dynamic meeting. This large meeting was more of a lecture than a discussion period. This was really only one-way communication and not in line with our thinking or our objectives for the whole program.

The next type of parent meeting attempted was based on the student's class affiliation. These meetings were to be smaller in terms of the number attending. The parents of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors met on separate nights. We set out to combat the tendency for one-way communication. There was a definite attempt to make these class parent meetings a discussion-type gathering rather than a lecture. This arrangement was much better than a large meeting for parents of all students. The very fact that they were smaller meetings encouraged more discussion. There was also more of a possibility for the parents and teachers to talk on face-to-face relationship than when we held the large meetings. The evening meetings also made possible the attendance of fathers and mothers together.

We soon discovered however that even the parents of students within one class had problems which were very diversified. In order to accommodate the great diversity of problems within the groups, the parents were subdivided into smaller interest groups.

It was decided to hold meetings for interest groups for parents with a class affiliation. A series of three meetings were held for the parents of seniors who were planning to enter some form of post-secondary education. Similar group meetings were held for the parents of seniors who were planning to enter the labor market or the armed forces. These parent-interest group meetings were held in the evening, and it was found that both mothers and fathers were able to attend. The meetings were designed to evoke the maximum amount of discussion. This was facilitated by the fact that the groups were small and had definite problems within a limited area. These meetings did bring forth a great deal of discussion.

The evolution of these meetings from poorly attended afternoon gatherings to intensive small-interest group meetings in the evening was paralleled by a similar development in the planning, presentation, and discussion of the materials. The first meetings were planned by the administration with some consultation with various department heads. The planning was later taken over by class advisers who, for the most part, were teachers. The administration role in the planning here was more of a partner than an autocratic leader. The next logical step is underway now. The parents of the students are now also asked to participate in the planning stage of these meetings.

When the meetings were first started, the method of presentation was exclusively a lecture or rather a series of lectures by the administrators and some of the department heads. The afternoon sessions did not provoke a great deal of discussion for the reasons noted previously. The large meetings in the evenings were also not particularly conducive to discussion. During the parent meetings, organized on a class basis, the format of the gathering was a panel of teachers who presented certain topics for discussion with the parents. The next logical step was the involvement of parents in presenting information to the group for discussion. This made our meetings much more representative and also much more enlightening. The problems no longer were academic, but became very real because the people discussing the problems had an intimate contact with them. The interest-group meetings were also designed to provoke the maximum amount of discussion. In case of the intensive interest-group meetings attempted thus far, the guidance counselors lead the discussion. They were under strict orders to limit any talking they did to only half of the meeting time. The remainder of the time was reserved for two-way discussion in the group.

Our most recent class meeting for parents was conducted entirely by students and parents. The class advisers asked several seniors and parents of seniors to act as a panel for the mothers and fathers of the freshmen. We deliberately did not choose our best students. We attempted to select aver-

age students who had a normal number of activities because we felt that their message would be more meaningful. Our parent consultants were chosen on the same basis. These people were asked merely to present information which they thought would be pertinent and helpful to parents of freshmen with three years of high school ahead of them. There were no attempts to channel the information into any category. As it turned out, their message was in the nature of advice for the parents of freshmen. All of the panel members stated those items which they thought would have been helpful to them as they looked back. They also warned them of some of the pitfalls. The students on the panel responded very well and they were easily "the hit of the show." The information they presented was perhaps not as academic as if the teachers had presented it, but by that very fact it became more meaningful. We feel that this technique is one which we will use again in the future.

The content of the presentation or discussion topics for the meetings also underwent an evolution. When the meetings were initiated the topic was arbitrarily chosen by the administration and the department heads. These topics usually covered such items as marking system, school activities, and expenses to be expected by students. These were of interest to the parents and were well presented. We were not certain that the parents wanted this type of information. We secured some reaction from them and found that they were well satisfied with the topics, but would have liked to add a discussion of behavior problems and study problems. We also discovered that many parents wanted information about post-school planning for their youngsters. This information secured from the parents, teachers, and department heads has been the basis of the content of the later intensive interest discussion groups.

In evaluating the program for ourselves, we feel that we have utilized the lecture or discussion method almost exclusively. We are constantly attempting to make these meetings true discussion periods rather than lecture periods followed by questions and answers. We definitely feel that we have very little use of visual and audio aids. This may be partially due to the fact that very little audio and visual material has been prepared in this area. We have used blackboard diagrams, data sheets, and other media such as these. From the limited use of the latter, we feel that there could be a greater use of all visual and audio materials applicable to this type of communication.

We have attempted some measure of objective evaluation. We asked parents to write a frank criticism of the meetings. They were asked to note their comments on blank sheets of paper and not to sign their names. It is interesting to note that there were no derogatory comments. Most of the comments were enthusiastic and requested that these meetings be continued in the future.

To date, the burden of encouraging attendance has been on the shoulders of the individual teachers who have co-operated exceedingly well. The first step in encouraging attendance was the forwarding of letters of invita-

tion to the parents of our students. We have both mailed these invitations and have asked the students to take them home. This letter was accompanied by an active campaign in the newspapers and over the radio to encourage attendance. The home-room teacher enters the picture in the final drive just before the meeting date. Each home-room teacher with one other teacher as an assistant called the parents of the students in his or her home room. This latter device is an important cog in the whole machinery of encouraging parent attendance.

The attendance at our parent meetings has varied. We estimated that on the average about thirty-five per cent of our students have had parent representation at these meetings. We are of course disappointed that we have been unable to reach a greater number of parents. Our audiences have been very enthusiastic and quite emphatic in their insistence that we continue these meetings. We feel that we are moving toward greater participation. As we improve our techniques and as we do a better job, the attendance will undoubtedly increase. The encouraging factor has been that each succeeding meeting has a greater attendance.

HENRY, N. B., editor. *The Public Junior College*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 5835 Kimbark Avenue. 1956. 365 pp. \$3.25, cloth, \$4. This is Part I of the Fifty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The volume is presented as a cordial tribute to the "aspirations" of earlier friends of the junior-college movement. In addition to its liberal confirmation of former appraisals of the effectiveness of the junior-college program in the improvement of the kinds of educational advantages available to the youth of America, the yearbook provides guidance for future planning in the interest of making these advantages available to the young people of every community. It is a timely publication in view of the predictions regarding the population of college age in the near future. It contributes also to the further stimulation of interest in adult-education programs and furnishes inspiration for the intelligent citizenry already engaged in promoting measures directed toward the effective integration of collegiate education and community life.

The junior college represents more than a promise for the future. It is a vital present-day reality, a vigorous institution. The first public junior college which is still in existence was founded at Joliet, Illinois, in 1902. Since that date, this new educational agency has multiplied and spread until it currently numbers 598, of which 338 are public institutions and 260 are private. At the close of its first half-century, the number of junior colleges is 40 per cent of the number of four-year colleges and universities in America, institutions which have a history of more than three hundred years.

Best Books of 1955 on Vocational Guidance

ROBERT HOPPOCK

EACH year the author of this article undertakes to review all new books on vocational guidance, except those devoted primarily to occupational information, which are reviewed in the *Occupational Index*. The best of the books dealing with the theory and practice of vocational guidance are annotated in an annual list; this is it. Included are some earlier references which did not reach us in time to be included in the 1954 list.

Inclusion of a book in this list does not mean that it is considered infallible. It does mean that the book has been compared with other publications and considered to contain useful information that would be of interest to readers who try to keep up to date on the better literature in this field. Apologies are made in advance to authors and publishers whose books have not been included and to those who find the annotations inadequate.

Andrew, Dean C., and Downing, Lester N. *120 Readings in Guidance*. 1955. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press. 341 pages. \$3.50. Excerpts from 71 articles on principles, philosophies, personnel, student analysis, counseling, informational and group services, placement and follow-up, organization, administration, and evaluation. Additional references on each topic.

Bennett, Margaret E. *Guidance in Groups: A Resource Book for Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators*. 1955. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 411 pages. \$5.50. Group approaches in guidance, common problems, learning techniques, orientation, personality and interpersonal relationships, vocational and educational guidance, problems of personnel. Intended to help counselors to help students to understand themselves and to achieve skill in self-direction. Especially good on the group approach to problems of emotional and social adjustment.

Bernard, H. W.; James, C. E.; and Zeran, F. R. *Guidance Services in Elementary Schools*. 1954. New York: Chartwell House, Inc. 403 pages. \$5.75. Objectives, mental hygiene, social-emotional maturity, problem solving, analyzing test data, common techniques of adjustment, individual inventory, community resources and public relations, orientation. Program, personnel, and evaluation of guidance services. Chapter 10 suggests including occupations in the study of the community.

Robert Hoppock is Professor of Education in the School of Education of New York University, Washington Square, New York, New York.

Carson, Esther O. *Teenagers Prepare for Work*. 1954. Hayward, California: Esther O. Carson, Hayward High School. 141 pages. *Out of print*. Unskilled and semiskilled jobs for slow learners. Simple reading exercises describe the work of the custodian, service station and farm helper, baby sitter, dishwasher, messenger, factory and food worker, painter, and sales clerk. Getting and holding a job. Budgeting and spending.

Elkin, A. *A Guide to Free Occupational and Vocational Guidance Literature*. 1955. New York: Federation Employment and Guidance Service, 42 E. 41 Street. 49 pages. \$1. A list of bibliographies, training directories, and other free materials on occupations, college planning, apprentice training, counselor preparation, discrimination, exceptional children, group guidance, job hunting, labor market, legislation, older workers, industrial counseling, scholarships, dropouts, small business, study aids, unions, visual aids, and vocational rehabilitation. No publication dates.

Feingold, S. N. *Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans*. Volume III. 1955. Cambridge 38, Mass.: Bellman Publishing Co. 471 pages. \$10. Aid available from 365 sources not listed in Volumes I and II. Index to all three volumes by vocational goal and field of interest. Sample application forms and suggestions for applicants.

Fine, Benjamin. *Fine's American College Counselor and Guide*. 1955. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 413 pages. \$4.95. College life and kinds of colleges, 97 pages. Brief descriptions of major professions, 204 pages. Directory of accredited colleges and medical schools, 98 pages.

Forrester, G. *Occupational Literature*. 1954. New York: H. W. Wilson Co. 467 pages. \$5. A bibliography of 2,000 pamphlets. A standard reference for counselors. Should be in every library.

Good Guidance Practices in the Elementary School. August, 1955. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education. Vol. 24. No. 6. Pages 1-77. A special issue covering administrative leadership, curriculum, individual and group guidance, parent and community co-operation. Recommended references and films.

Greenleaf, W. J. *Occupations and Careers*. 1955. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 605 pages. \$4.20. A new textbook for high-school courses in occupations, by the specialist in occupational information of the U. S. Office of Education. "Part I concerns the individual—his interests, hobbies, knowledge of local opportunities, how to study occupations, and how to get a job. Part II concerns individual occupations grouped according to . . . the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. . . Part III discusses typical industries that employ workers in all occupational classifications." Discussion topics. How to relate school subjects to occupations. Census data. Apprenticeable occupations. Profusely illustrated. Bibliographies. Teacher's manual.

Guidance for Today's Children. Thirty-Third Yearbook. September, 1954. National Elementary Principal, Washington, D. C. Vol. 34. No. 1. Pages 1-278. \$3.50. Fifty-one articles on the role of the principal, the

teacher, and the specialist; securing and using information; pupil activities, school programs, and the community.

Hahn, Milton E., and MacLean, Malcolm S. *Counseling Psychology*. Second edition. 1955. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 302 pages. \$4.75. Philosophy and ethics. Nature of educational-vocational-personal problems. Tools and techniques of counseling. Aptitudes, abilities, skills, and achievements. Educational-vocational interests. Case study. Learning, anxiety reduction, prognosis, and prediction. Related disciplines. A revision of *General Clinical Counseling in Educational Institutions*.

Hardee, Melvane Draheim, editor. *Counseling and Guidance in General Education*. 1955. Yonkers, N. Y. World Book Co. 144 pages. \$5. A symposium sponsored by the Association for Higher Education, NEA. Eighteen authors discuss individual guidance, student needs, counseling as an integrating factor, moral and spiritual values, the content of the campus in relation to general education, personal-social adjustment, guidance through physical education, role of the faculty counselor, vocational preparation, residence counseling, specialized services, articulating general and professional education, advising the commuting student, co-operative learning experiences of the faculty, co-ordinating the work of teachers, counselors, and administrators, research and evaluation, public acceptance, points of view, and persistent problems.

Hersey, Rexford. *Zest for Work*. 1955. New York: Harper and Bros. 270 pages. \$4. A report of intensive, case-study research undertaken to discover the general prerequisites for successful individual adjustment of individual male workers. Based upon interviewing, observing, and testing individual workers from four months to two years. Sociological, psychological, and physiological data on everything from blood cholesterol to emotional outbursts. Conclusions for industry.

How To Visit Colleges. 1954. Washington 5, D. C.: National Vocational Guidance Association. 24 pages. 25c. For high-school students and their parents. Why and when to go, how to prepare, what to look for and ask about, what to do after the visit. Brief, specific, authoritative, and readable.

Jaffe, A. J., and Carleton, R. O. *Occupational Mobility in the United States 1930-1960*. 1954. New York: King's Crown Press, Columbia University. 113 pages. \$2.75. A statistical study of census data, undertaken to develop procedures for estimating future manpower supply by occupation.

Kelley, Janet A. *Guidance and Curriculum*. 1955. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 532 pages. \$5.75. "... guidance ... must be an integral part of the total educational program, with its nature and scope co-operatively defined by the entire staff of the school in conjunction with parents and students ... guidance counselors, curriculum specialists, and teachers can affect an integration of guidance and curriculum through the process of building guidance-centered curriculum units and resource materials."

Lehner, George F. J., and Kube, Ella. *The Dynamics of Personal Adjustment*. 1955. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 498 pages. \$5.25.

One chapter on career and job adjustment: choice of a job, transition from school to work, anxiety, job satisfaction, and morale. Other chapters on understanding ourselves and our world; social influence; personal needs and adjustments to frustration; defense mechanisms; neuroses; psychoses; family, school, social, sexual, and old-age adjustment; personal differences; characteristics of satisfactory adjustment; and psychotherapy.

Lovejoy, Clarence E. *Lovejoy's Vocational School Guide*. 1955. New York: Simon and Schuster. 216 pages. \$195. A directory of 6,500 private and public vocational schools, correspondence courses, and special schools for the handicapped. Some questionable items in chapter on selecting a vocation; e.g., beauty operator is listed as an occupation predominantly for men, blacksmith for men and women.

Mathewson, Robert Henry. *Guidance Policy and Practice*. Revised edition. 1955. New York: Harper and Bros. 424 pages. \$4.50. Individual and social needs, philosophy and policy, implementation and future of guidance.

Ohlsen, Merle M. *Guidance, and Introduction*. 1955. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 436 pages. \$4.50. Twenty pages on vocational choice, occupational information, groups for the study of occupations, and the vocations course. Chapters on organization, children's needs, pupil-centered teaching, discipline, child study, testing, records, counseling, group activities, vocational and educational planning, community resources, in-service education, and evaluation.

Roeber, E. C.; Smith, G. E.; and Erickson, C. E. *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*. 1955. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 294 pages. \$4.75. Basic guidance services; functions of school personnel; organizational patterns; selection, training, and certification of guidance workers; planning and organizing the counseling, individual inventory, information, placement, and follow-up services; administering and evaluating guidance services.

Scholarships Available to Entering College Freshmen. 1955. Chronicle Guidance Publication. 106 pages. \$10. Printed so that data on each college can be clipped and pasted on a 4" x 6" card; two copies are needed to do this.

Shosteck, Robert. *College Finder*. 1955 Washington 5, D. C.: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau. 448 pages. \$3.50. Classified list of 1,800 colleges and universities arranged by eight-digit code numbers to facilitate selection by type of institution, region, environment, cost, size, control, sex, and military training. Cross-indexed under 137 fields of study with number of degrees granted in the field. Cross-indexed geographically by states, with student religious organizations indicated.

Smith, Glenn E. *Counseling in the Secondary School*. 1955. New York: Macmillan Co. 365 pages. \$4.25. "... designed to acquaint ... counselors ... administrators, and teachers with a ... description of the counseling service ... in the school setting with ... reference to the roles of all staff members in it." Nature, setting, methods, techniques, and tools of coun-

seling. Developing the counseling service and supporting services. Preparation and certification of counselors. Extending service to adults. Evaluating service to adults. Evaluating the service. Issues, trends, and prospects.

Summer Employment Directory. 1955 Cincinnati, Ohio. National Directory Service. 38 pages. Free. A national list of employers who invite applications for summer jobs.

Warburton, Amber Arthun. *Guidance in a Rural-Industrial Community*. 1954. Washington 6, D. C.: Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth and National Education Association. 249 pages. \$4. cloth; \$3. paper. The development of a program in Harlan County, Kentucky. The impact of coal mining on a mountain economy. Delinquency, health, occupational planning, teacher education, principals' reports, changes reported by teachers, community responsibility, reactions of boys and girls, implications of the story. Some interesting excerpts from the reports of teachers and students.

Warner, W. Lloyd, and Abegglen, James C. *Occupational Mobility in American Business and Industry, 1928-1952*. 1955. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 315 pages. \$5.50. Analysis of the social origins and careers of 8,000 major business executives, compared with the Taussig and Joslyn study made 25 years earlier. Occupational origins, circulation, education, marriages, and families of the American business "elite." Business careers and the business system. Methods and techniques of the study. The laborer who marries the boss's daughter reaches the top only two months sooner than the laborer who marries in his own group; both take 26 years.

Weaver, Glen L. *How, When, and Where To Provide Occupational Information*. 1955. Chicago: Science Research Associates. 47 pages. \$1. For elementary and secondary schools.

Where To Find Vocational Training in New York City. 1954 New York 16: Vocational Advisory Service. 208 pages. \$3.50. Public and private vocational schools with day and evening courses. Agricultural and technical institutes, community colleges, professional and teachers colleges affiliated with the State University of New York. Special courses for the handicapped. Does not include graduate schools of universities, nor correspondence courses.

Wiley, Roy De Verl, and Andrew, Dean C. *Modern Methods and Techniques in Guidance*. 1955. New York: Harper and Bros. 653 pages. \$5. Concepts of guidance, understanding the individual, using information about the student, group guidance, records, and evaluation. Major emphasis on the study of the individual.

Zimmerman, O. T., and Lavine, I. *College Placement Directory*. Second edition. 1955. Dover, N. H.: Industrial Research Service. 577 pages. \$10.75. Directory of 1,500 companies and 30 government agencies that hire 50,000 college graduates a year. Nature of business, number and kind of graduates hired, whom to contact. Cross-indexed by occupation, state, city, and 54 foreign countries. Courses, enrollments, and placement officers of 1,000 colleges and 20 technical institutions arranged by states.

American Doctoral Dissertations on Secondary Education in Foreign Countries

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

THE WRITER has recently completed a study of some 15,000 doctoral dissertations in the field of education which have been accepted by American institutions of higher education. More than one thousand of these have dealt with various phases of education in foreign countries.¹

Of the dissertations concerned with foreign education, no less than 121 were found which deal with some aspect of secondary education in various countries. They are spread over a period of fifty years, the first one noted having been written at the University of Nebraska in 1904. Interestingly enough it was devoted to a study of the history of secondary education from prehistoric time to the Christian era—a fairly adequate basis, it would seem, for all subsequent dissertations in the field. More than half of them, however, have been written in the past twelve years.

These dissertations have been accepted by twenty-three American universities, Columbia University leading with sixty—almost half of the entire number. New York University is second with ten. California and Harvard each have six, Indiana and Ohio State each have five, Pennsylvania has four, Michigan and Stanford each have three, Catholic, Chicago, Cornell, Fordham, Oregon State, and Temple each have two, and eight other institutions have one each.

Following is a list of the dissertations on secondary education in foreign countries, arranged geographically, with name of author, title of dissertation, institution at which it was accepted, and date of acceptance. Thirty-one different countries are represented, Canada having the largest number with twenty, followed by China with fifteen and India with fourteen.

¹Titles of all dissertations in education and related fields have been examined in *Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1934-54, 21 vols.); *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education* (Washington: United States Office of Education, 1929-41, 13 vols., and continued in manuscript to 1952); W. S. Monroe's *Theses in Education Accepted by American Colleges and Universities* (Urbana: University of Illinois, 1920-28, 6 vols.); *American Doctoral Dissertations Printed* (Washington: Library of Congress, 1912-28, 27 vols.); and many other specialized bibliographies, catalogs, and abstracts published by individual institutions and organizations. For a brief report of the general study see W. C. Eells, "American Doctoral Dissertations on Foreign Education," *Higher Education*, 12:19-22, October 1955.

Walter C. Eells, retired and living in Washington, D. C., was last Adviser on Higher Education, Staff of General Douglas MacArthur, Tokio, Japan. Dr. Eells is also the author of two books—*Communism in Education in Asia, Africa and the Far Pacific* and *The Literature of Japanese Education, 1945-1954*.

GENERAL

CRESPI, ALBERTA A. "Secondary-School Teachers in the Territories and Possessions of the United States." Fordham University, 1942. (Includes Guam, Philippines, Puerto Rico, Samoa, and Virgin Islands).

GOODEN, HERBERT BICKLING. "A Causal-Comparative Approach to the Study of Secondary Education in Guatemala, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Colombia, 1924-1944." New York University, 1946.

KASUYA, YOSHI. "A Comparative Study of Secondary Education of Girls in England, Germany, and the United States, with a Consideration of the Secondary Education of Girls in Japan." Columbia University, 1933.

SMITH, FRANK WEBSTER. "Historical Development of Secondary Education from Prehistoric Times to the Christian Era." University of Nebraska, 1904.

NORTH AMERICA

Canada

ARNDT, MRS. RUTH ELIZABETH SPENCE. "Education as Growth: Its Significance for the Secondary Schools of Ontario." Columbia University, 1925.

CLUBINE, GORDON LAVERNE. "A Plan for the Improvement and Extension of Art Education in Ontario Secondary Schools." Columbia University, 1952.

CLUBINE, MARY H. "Effective Procedures in the Teaching of Art in Ontario Secondary Schools." Columbia University, 1952.

COOK, HAROLD STIRLING. "Improving Educational Opportunity for Quebec Youth." University of Chicago, 1942.

COUTTS, HERBERT THOMAS. "The Relation Between the Reading Competence of Alberta's Ninth-Grade Pupils in Four Content Fields and Their Achievement in Those Fields." University of Minnesota, 1951.

DAVIS, DAVID GRAY. "Reorganization of Secondary Education in Nova Scotia." Harvard University, 1927.

DYDE, WALTER FARRELL. "Public Secondary Education in Canada." Columbia University, 1929.

FLATHER, DONALD M. "An Evaluation of the Science Program in the High Schools of British Columbia." University of Washington, 1950.

GLINZ, LESLIE ALBERT. "The Development of Public Secondary Education in Manitoba." Stanford University, 1931.

GRANTHAM, HERBERT H. "The Science Curriculum in British Columbia Schools with Emphasis upon the Secondary Levels." Stanford University, 1951.

LOSIER, SISTER ST. MICHAEL. "An Evaluation of Education for Democracy in the Secondary Schools of the Maritime Provinces of Canada." Fordham University, 1952.

MCCARTHY, JOSEPH V. "The Effectiveness of the Nova Scotia High-School Curriculum in Preparing Urban High-School Graduates for Voca-

tions, for Citizenship, and for the Worthy Use of Leisure Time." Harvard University, 1950.

MCCUTCHEON, WILFRED W. "Some Factors for Consideration in the Establishment of Departments of Agriculture in the Protestant Rural Secondary Schools of Quebec and the Rural Secondary Schools of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia." Cornell University, 1951.

MACGREGOR, HUGH ALTON. "A Proposal for Canadian Federal-Provincial Participation in Vocational Agriculture." Oregon State College, 1951.

PLEWES, DORIS WILLARD. "A Course of Study in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, London, Ontario (Kindergarten—Grade XIII)." Columbia University, 1943.

ROBINSON, GEORGE CARLTON. "The Historical Development of Public Secondary Education in the Province of Ontario, Canada." Harvard University, 1918.

VAN VLIET, MAURICE L. "A Guide to Administrative Policies for Physical Education in Canadian Public Schools, Grades One Through Nine." University of California, 1951.

WEEKS, HAROLD L. "Organization, Administration, and Supervision of Business Education in British Columbia." Harvard University, 1943.

WILKINS, CECIL J. "An Administrative Plan for the Improvement of Reading in the Toronto Secondary Schools." Columbia University, 1953.

WILSON, JOHN A. R. "The Counselor in Canadian Secondary Schools." Oregon State College, 1952.

Mexico

DANIELS, BLAIRE ELLSWORTH. "Technical and Industrial Education in the Public Schools of Mexico City." Temple University, 1937.

PICKARD, EDWARD E. "A Survey of Commercial Education in Mexico City." Rutgers University, 1934.

SCHEMEL, MARGARET CONSTANCE. "Present-Day Foreign Language Instruction in the Secondary Schools of Mexico in the Light of Its Historical Development." Indiana University, 1945.

SMITH, MATTHEW DINSDALE. "Factors Contributing to the Development of Public Secondary Education in Mexico from 1867 to 1927." University of California, 1930.

Puerto Rico

URGELL, FRANCISCO C. "The Development and Contemporary Problems of Vocational Education in Puerto Rico." Pennsylvania State University (formerly Pennsylvania State College), 1942.

VAZQUEZ, HERMINIA. "The Role of the College of Education in the Re-orientation of Secondary Education in Puerto Rico." Columbia University, 1954.

See also CRESPI, A. R., under GENERAL, above.

SOUTH AMERICA

General

HALL, ROBERT KING. "Federal Control of Secondary Education in the ABC Republics." University of Michigan, 1941.

Argentina

MADDOCK, SAYRE PAUL. "An Attempt To Achieve Needed Changes in the Argentine Secondary School (Colegio Nacional) Through the Influence of a New Program of Study in the American School, Buenos Aires." Columbia University, 1937.

See also HALL, R. K., under SOUTH AMERICA—*General*, above.

Chile

SALAS-SILVA, IRMA. "The Socio-Economic Composition of the Secondary-School Population of Chile." Columbia University, 1930.

See also HALL, R. K., under SOUTH AMERICA—*General*, above.

Colombia

BARNEY, MARIA INES. "Planning for Colombian Youth." Columbia University, 1948.

VALENCIA-VASQUEZ, HECTOR G. "Theories and Practices of Secondary-School Organization and Administration in the Republic of Columbia." Ohio State University, 1953.

See also GOODEN, H. B., under *GENERAL*, above.

EUROPE

General

EFRON, ALEXANDER. "The Teaching of Physical Sciences in Secondary Schools in the United States, France, and Soviet Russia." Columbia University, 1937.

MAHER, CHRISTOPHER HENRY. "Youth Movements in Various Countries." New York University, 1942. (Includes Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, and Russia).

Austria

PARKER, BERYL. "The Austrian B. E. A. or Bundeserziehungsanstalten (Austrian Federal Boarding Schools)." Columbia University, 1931.

See also MAHER, C. H., under EUROPE—*General*, above.

Belgium

MARIQUE, PIERRE JOSEPH. "Vocational Education in Belgium." New York University, 1912.

Denmark

ANDREASEN, PAUL J. "Grundtvig as an Educator with Special Reference to the Folk High-School Movement." New York University, 1936.

HEGLAND, MARTIN. "The Danish Peoples School, Including a General Account of the Educational System of Denmark." Columbia University, 1915.

JORGENSEN, SIGURD. "The Danish Folk High School, with Emphasis upon the 'Living Word,' Folk Song, and Gymnastics." Ohio State University, 1945.

France

McMURRY, RUTH EMILY. "The Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers for the French Secondary Schools." Columbia University, 1929.

MILES, DONALD W. "Reform in French Secondary Education with Certain Implications for French and American Education." Columbia University, 1953.

PARKHURST, DOROTHY H. "An Evaluation for High School Use of the Information Content about France in Twenty-Four French Novels and Dramas of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries." New York University, 1934.

See also, EFRON, A., under *EUROPE-General*, above.

Germany

BECKWITH, HOLMES. "German Industrial Education and Its Lesson for the United States." Columbia University, 1913.

DINGMAN, ERWIN. "A History of Vocational Education and Vocational Guidance in Hesse, Germany, during the United States Occupation, May 1945 to January 1948, with Backgrounds Forward from the Roman Occupation." New York University, 1949.

ERICKSON, HAROLD B. "An Analysis of Some Aspects of Secondary Education in East Germany." University of California, 1954.

HAHN, WALTER. "German Secondary Education, with Emphasis on Problems of the Postwar Period." University of Utah, 1952.

LEARNED, WILLIAM SETCHEL. "The Development of the Professional and Social Organization of Secondary-School Teachers in Germany." Harvard University, 1912.

ROBBINS, CHARLES LEONIDAS. "Teachers in Germany in the Sixteenth Century: Conditions in Protestant Elementary and Secondary Schools." Columbia University, 1912.

SCHMID, ROBERT CARL. "German Youth Movements: A Typological Study." University of Washington, 1942.

SEIP, WILLIAM H. "Science Teaching in Secondary Schools in Prussia Since the Reorganization." Temple University, 1932.

TAYLOR, JOHN WILKINSON. "Youth Welfare in Germany: A Study of Governmental Action Relative to Care of Normal German Youth." Columbia University, 1936.

See also KASUYA, Y. under *GENERAL* and MAHER, C. H., under *EUROPE-General* above.

Great Britain

MATTHEWS, RODERIC DONALD. "Post-Primary Education in England: A Study of the Relation of the Board of Education to the Provision for Post-Primary Education in England, 1902-1929." University of Pennsylvania, 1931.

NORMAN, JAMES WILLIAM. "A Comparison of Tendencies in Secondary Education in England and the United States." Columbia University, 1920.

TURNER, IVAN STEWART. "The Training of Mathematics Teachers for Secondary Schools in England and Wales and in the United States." Columbia University, 1939.

WADE, NEWMAN ATKINSON. "Post-Primary Education in the Primary Schools of Scotland, 1872-1936." Columbia University, 1939.

WOOLCOCK, CYRIL WILLIAM. "A Study of the Implications of the New Education for the Revision of the Curriculum of Secondary Schools in England." Ohio State University, 1940.

See also KASUYA, Y., under GENERAL and MAHER, C. H., under EUROPE—General, above.

Greece

MICHAELIDES-NOUARIOS, ANDREW. "Current Problems in Secondary Education in Greece." Indiana University, 1953.

ROSSI, MARGUERITE AIMEE. "How Fascista Italy Educates Her Youth: A Study of Italian Thought on the Education of Italians." Stanford University, 1941.

Netherlands

HOLTROP, WILLIAM F. "The Development and Present Status of Vocational Education in the Netherlands." University of California, 1948.

Portugal

SHERIDAN, LEORA JAMES. "The Origin and Development of Secondary Education in Portugal." University of Pennsylvania, 1940.

Spain

PERZ, JOHN RAYMOND. "Secondary Education in Spain." Catholic University of America, 1935.

Sweden

BORGENSON, FRITHIOF CARL. "The Administration of Elementary and Secondary Education in Sweden." Columbia University, 1927.

KILANDER, HOLGER FREDERICK. "Science Education in the Secondary Schools of Sweden: A Comparative Study of Sweden and the United States." Columbia University, 1931.

OSTERGREN, DAVID L. "The Folk High Schools of Sweden." Columbia University, 1949.

PETERSON, AXEL GEORGE. "The Training of Elementary and Secondary Teachers in Sweden." Columbia University, 1933.

AFRICA

IBRAHIM, ABDEL-LATIF FOUAD. "Social Studies in Egyptian Secondary Schools and the Professional Preparation of Teachers of These Studies during the Period 1930-1947." Columbia University, 1950.

KANDIL, IBRAHIM H. "The Construction of a Physical Education Course of Study for Egyptian Secondary Schools." Indiana University, 1954.

SALEM, MOHAMED MOKHLISS. "The Training and Attitudes of Egyptian Biology Teachers and American Science Teachers." Columbia University, 1953.

SAMAAN, SADEK HALAKA. "Egyptian Secondary Education: A Study in Philosophical Foundations." Columbia University, 1953.

South Africa

SMUTS, ARDIAAN JOSIAS. "The Education of Adolescents in South Africa." Columbia University, 1938.

ZYL, ABRAHAM J. VAN. "Mathematics at the Cross-Roads: A Critical Survey of the Teaching of Mathematics in the Secondary Schools of the Union of South Africa with Suggestions for Reorganization." Columbia University, 1940.

ASIA

China

ANDERSON, MARY RALEIGH. "A Cycle in the Celestial Kingdom, or Protestant Mission Schools for Girls in South China (1927 to the Japanese Invasion)." Columbia University, 1943.

BUSCH, HEINRICH. "The Tung-lin Academy and Its Political and Philosophical Significance." Columbia University, 1953.

CHANG, PENG CHUN. "Education for Modernization in China: A Search for Criteria for Curriculum Construction in View of the Transition in National Life, with Special Reference to Secondary Education." Columbia University, 1924.

FANG, TUNG YUAN. "An Improved Program of Secondary Education in Postwar China." University of Pennsylvania, 1947.

HOCKIN, KATHERINE BOEHNER. "A Method and Plan of Work for Developing a Program in Religious Education for Christian Secondary Schools in Szechuan, China." Columbia University, 1948.

NELSON, LINNEA A. "A Proposed Curriculum for a Selected Senior Middle School in China." University of California, 1946.

SHEN, YE. "A Proposed Program for a Chinese Junior High School in Respect to Gifted Children as Compared with Other Children." Columbia University, 1936.

STOWE, EVERETT MCKINLEY. "Character and Religious Education in Christian Middle Schools in China." Columbia University, 1937.

SUN, HUAI CHIN. "A Study of Chinese Secondary Education with a Suggested Program for Reorganization." University of Colorado, 1949.

SUNG, KE. "A Study of Secondary-School Curriculum in Kansu, China, with a Suggested Reorganization of the Program." Cornell University, 1940.

TAAI, WAI KING. "Adolescent Education in China." New York University, 1939.

TAN, JEN MAI. "History of Modern China's Secondary Education." University of Pennsylvania, 1940.

THOM, ELEANOR WAI CHUN. "A Plan for the Organization and Administration of a Proposed Private Secondary School for Girls in Canton, China." Columbia University, 1946.

WANG, TSI CHANG. "The Youth Movement of China." University of Chicago, 1925.

WEI, YUNG CHING. "A Plan for the Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers in Hopei Province, China." Columbia University, 1943.

Hong Kong

LAU, KWAI CHEUK. "The Formation of a Plan To Be Proposed to the Faculty of Lingnam Middle School, Hong Kong, for the Improvement of Extracurricular Activities in the School and for the Guidance of Pupil Participation in Those Activities." Columbia University, 1940.

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The Daily Schedule in Junior High Schools

A Study of the Committee on Junior High School Education*

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS

Part I

THE junior high school, especially in the last ten years, has increased in number and influence so much that now it and its counterpart in grades 10 to 12, the senior high school, enroll 3,055,002 pupils. In enrollment totals, the junior high school and the senior high school are by all odds the predominant pattern of secondary-school organization in the United States.¹ Also, they are the prevailing type of secondary school in urban areas—all places over 10,000 people according to the United States census—where they enroll 66.5 per cent of all high-school youth.

Many educators consider the junior high school a "neglected" area because little significant research has been devoted to it. However, with this study and other projects now in process, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, through its Committee on Junior High School Education, plans to focus continued professional attention on the junior high school and on the junior high-school years in the 6-year high school.

WHY WAS THIS STUDY MADE?

To provide nation-wide data on administration of the daily time schedule and program in junior high schools. As previous studies on the topic have dealt with either one state or a small number of schools, the Committee on Junior High School Education decided a comprehensive study of the daily schedule in junior high schools was both needed and timely.

HOW WAS THIS STUDY MADE?

It was planned by the Committee at the November 1955 meeting at NASSP Washington headquarters as one of six 1956 projects. The writer was directed to prepare a post-card questionnaire on characteristics of the

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¹Cf. "Junior High-School Facts," U. S. Office of Education, Misc. No. 21, p. 16. Washington 25, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1955. 50c.

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junior high-school daily schedule and to mail it to each junior high-school principal member of the NASSP. On November 25, 1955, there were 2,000 questionnaire cards mailed. By December 21, there were 1,260 cards returned, of which 1,250 were usable. Replies received after that date could not be used because the tabulation of the responses had already begun. (Table 3)

HOW CAN THIS STUDY HELP JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS?

By indicating status and trends in administration of the daily schedule. How other junior high schools organize their school day is of interest to principals; they can compare their own practice with common patterns in other states and with nation-wide data. Principals want to know what other schools are doing.

WHAT ARE THE MAJOR FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY?

You can find out for yourself by looking closely at the tables. If you lack time to do this and wish the author's judgment, the major findings appear to him to be:

1. *Block-Time Classes*—Core, unified studies or periods, common learnings, general education. (Table 2)

The majority of all junior high schools now use some block-time classes in their daily schedule. Percentage-wise, 57.3 per cent of 1,170 responding schools have block-time classes, while 42.7 per cent employ single-period classes for general education. In junior high schools over 1,000 enrollment, the percentage using block-time classes is 72.5.

Heretofore, the latest reliable data (1950) on percentage of *all* secondary schools having core or similar block-time classes that cut across subject matter lines indicated that about 833 schools had some block-time classes in their daily schedule.² These data show that approximately 15.8 per cent of the junior high schools had core or common learning block-time classes, as against 6.4 per cent of six-year high schools, and 1.4 per cent of the traditional four-year high school.

This study, however, shows that the number and percentage of junior high schools using block-time classes has increased greatly since 1950. For example, responding schools using some block-time classes now constitute the majority of junior high schools in 29 states. Among the leaders are:

California—	107 of 131 schools reporting		
Illinois—	19 of 20	"	"
Maryland—	30 of 36	"	"
North Carolina—	15 of 16	"	"
Utah—	16 of 18	"	"
Washington—	41 of 46	"	"

² Wright, Grace S. *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools*. U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1950, No. 5. Washington 25, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 15c.

As time goes on, fewer and fewer junior high schools will retain the single period practice for all general education classes. Although the name used by schools to designate block-time classes varies; core, common learnings, unified periods or studies, general education, *etc.* are used frequently, and sometimes the combination of subjects is made without any specific name. The most popular subject-combinations for block-time classes are, in order:

1. English (or language arts) and social studies
2. Mathematics and science
3. Social studies and science

The first is by far the most predominant, being reported 461 times in this study. The number of total combinations reported exceeds 120. These include block-time classes which cross subject lines but omit double-period classes in general education which do *not* cut across subject areas.

2. Double Sessions (Table 3)

Despite the common idea that all schools are overcrowded—and, of course, many are—only 34 or 2.75 per cent of the 1,236 junior high schools responding to this question are on double, overlapping, or staggered shifts. Thus, the percentage of junior high schools *not* on regular session is extremely small.

3. Years in Junior High School (Table 4)

The separate three-year school is the commonest type of junior high school, constituting 84.7 per cent of the total number reporting. Two-year schools, usually grades 7-8, make up 13.5 per cent. Four-year schools, most of which are in California and New York, total 1.6 per cent, while one-year and five-year schools are represented by one school each.

Educational leaders have questioned whether the two-year junior high school is as much an adequate junior high school as it is an attempted solution to a difficult housing problem.

4. Size of Junior High Schools (Tables 1 and 3)

Junior high schools are urban schools primarily, and they are mostly large schools. The enrollment of the median school of the 1,225 junior high schools reporting is 675; the average size of all 1,224 is 675.4 enrollment. Almost 71 per cent of the responding schools have enrollments over 500; 27.6 per cent have 1,000 or more pupils. There are some small junior high schools; the smallest is at Cummington, Massachusetts, with 26 pupils. Small junior high schools are the exception. Only 7.8 per cent are under 250 enrollment.

It is interesting to compare the size of junior high schools with that of other schools. The median four-year high school enrolls 97 pupils. The median six-year high school enrolls 185, while the median senior high school has 685 pupils.³ The 10 largest junior high schools among the 1,250 reporting are:

³ *High School Staff and Size of School*. U. S. Office of Education Circular No. 317. Washington 25, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1950. p. 3.

1. E. O. Smith Junior High School, Houston, Texas—3,050
2. Wilmington (Calif.) Junior High School—2,807
3. Junior High School 246, Brooklyn, New York—2,550
4. J. A. Sutter Junior High School, Canoga Park, Calif.—2,525
5. Sun Valley (Calif.) Junior High School—2,486
6. Van Nuys (Calif.) Junior High School—2,470
7. Pasteur Junior High School, Los Angeles, Calif.—2,418
8. San Fernando (Calif.) Junior High School—2,400
9. Pershing Junior High School, Houston, Texas—2,334
10. North Point Junior High School, Dundalk, Maryland—2,242

5. *Men and Women Teachers* (Table 3)

Traditionally, the faculty of the junior high school has been predominantly women. Of the 1,196 responding schools, more men than women were on the professional staff in 407 or 34 per cent of the schools. Statistics for all secondary schools show that 45.6 per cent of all professional staff are men.⁴ We do not have a corresponding statistic for junior high schools available; inspection of the data from the questionnaire cards suggests that the total proportion of men to women teachers on junior high staffs would be somewhat less than 4 to 6.

Utah, which leads all states in the percentage of men teachers, reports that, in 17 of 18 junior high schools, men teachers outnumber women teachers. Washington follows with 35 of 47 schools reporting a preponderance of men. Five other states report that a majority of junior high schools have more men than women on the faculty.

Some educators question the significance of discussion on the sex of teachers; they say that sex is not the main determinant of good teaching. Most principals and superintendents, however, believe in a reasonably even balance between men and women teachers to correspond with the rather even distribution of boys and girls in junior high schools. Other reasons for attention to the ratio of men to women teachers could be cited. Those who are interested may find the circular mentioned in footnote four helpful.

6. *Snack Period* (Table 3)

The snack period, first cousin to the adult coffee break, is apparently making headway into daily schedules of junior high schools, but as yet it has not been widely accepted. Of 1,154 reporting schools, 137 or 11.87 per cent indicate the use of a snack period in the daily time-schedule.

7. *Typical Junior High School Day* (Table 3)

Of course, there is no typical junior high school. But by examining Table 3, we can see that the hypothetically typical junior high school

- Includes grades 7, 8, and 9
- Enrolls 675 pupils
- Has a teaching staff of 30
- Uses a 6-period day

⁴ Tompkins, Ellsworth. *Ratio of Men to Women Teachers*. U. S. Office of Education Circular No. 413. November 1954, Table II. Free.

- Has 50-minute periods
- Begins classes at 8:30 A.M.
- Ends classes at 3:30 P.M.
- Allows 3-minutes of passing time between classes
- Has 45-minute activity period
- Schedules some block-time classes, which are named either core, common learnings, unified periods, unified studies, or general education.
- Combines English (or language arts) and social studies in block-time classes.

ARE THERE CERTAIN LIMITATIONS TO THE DATA?

Yes. The data were gathered by postcard questionnaire. Any possible error by a respondent will cause some degree of error in the study. If the number of junior high schools responding from a state is small, the larger will be the possible error. In all other states, the possible error will tend more or less to cancel out. The large number of replies and the painstaking inspection of the questionnaire responses reduce the likelihood of error. Furthermore, responses have been checked with state department of education reports and with the U. S. Office of Education's *Directory of Secondary Day Schools*.

In certain states the number of junior high schools is so small that the data cannot be regarded as sufficiently valid. Nevertheless, because such data can contribute to nation-wide medians and averages, they are included. Such states include Arizona, Nebraska, and Vermont. States not represented in the study are Montana and Nevada.

All items of the questionnaire were not answered by all respondents; for example, questions dealing with the activity period elicited a response from about 60% of the schools. Some schools using block-time classes do not schedule activity periods; they prefer to have what is generally called extraclass activity within the block-time class.

Items 8 through 11 on the questionnaire card have been omitted from this report because they turned out to lack clarity; for example, variation in home-room practice reported by junior high schools proved too unwieldy to classify. Also, the item on "Total hours in school day" proved difficult (Should lunch hour be counted as part of the school day?). If we were to revise the questionnaire in light of experience, surely questions 8 through 11 would be made more specific or dropped.

The study deals with status. Consequently, little attention is given to kind and quality of programs or schedules. We found how 1,250 junior high schools organize and administer their daily schedule; we did not attempt to evaluate what we found out—we did not ask the question, "How well does the daily schedule work?"

TABLE 1—NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING,
BY SIZE OF SCHOOL AND BY STATE

State	Number	Enrollment						
		0- 249	250- 499	500- 749	750- 999	1000- 1499	1500- 1999	over 2000
Alabama.....	13	2	6	4	1			
Arizona.....	1			1				
Arkansas.....	13	1	1	4	3	4		
California.....	139	2	5	14	24	61	24	9
Colorado.....	13		4	3	4	2		
Connecticut.....	18		4	8	4	2		
Delaware.....	4	1	1		2			
District of Columbia..	17			4	8	4	1	
Florida.....	32	2	5	9	5	8	3	
Georgia.....	4			2		2		
Idaho.....	7		2	2	2	1		
Illinois.....	21		4	10	4	1	1	1
Indiana.....	11		5	4	2			
Iowa.....	35	9	6	12	4	4		
Kansas.....	26	5	7	8	5	1		
Kentucky.....	7		1	3	2	1		
Louisiana.....	8	1		4	2		1	
Maine.....	5		1	4				
Maryland.....	35	6	4	6	5	9	1	4
Massachusetts.....	51	5	19	14	10	3		
Michigan.....	39	2	8	5	12	9	1	2
Minnesota.....	59	11	19	9	11	8	1	
Mississippi.....	5		1	2	1	1	1	
Missouri.....	18	3	4	3	4	3	1	
Nebraska.....	1		1					
New Hampshire.....	3				2	1		
New Jersey.....	39	2	11	12	7	5	2	
New Mexico.....	8		2	3	2	1		
New York.....	63	1	9	11	11	17	9	5
North Carolina.....	15	1	1	6	3	4		
North Dakota.....	5		1	3	1			
Ohio.....	50	3	6	14	8	18	1	
Oklahoma.....	35	6	5	7	5	9	3	
Oregon.....	24	3	10	8	1	2		
Pennsylvania.....	110	7	24	32	22	14	11	
Rhode Island.....	13		5	3	3	2		
South Carolina.....	7			3	1	2	1	
South Dakota.....	4		3	1				
Tennessee.....	8		1	2	3	2		
Texas.....	100	4	21	22	23	21	4	5
Utah.....	17	2	5	4	4	2		
Vermont.....	1		1					
Virginia.....	17		4	6	3	4		
Washington.....	48	4	10	11	11	11	1	
West Virginia.....	22	7	10	4		1		
Wisconsin.....	45	5	19	10	6	5		
Wyoming.....	8	1	5		1	1		
TOTAL.....	1,224*	96	261	297	232	245	67	26
PERCENTAGE SUMMARY.....	100	7.8	21.3	24.3	19	20	5.5	2.1

*Only 1,224 of the 1,250 schools submitted enrollment data. (Also, cf. item 2, Table 3).

TABLE 2—NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
REPORTING BLOCK-OF-TIME CLASSES, BY STATE

<i>State</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Reporting block-time classes</i>	<i>Reporting no block-time classes</i>
Alabama.....	13	8	5
Arizona.....	1	1	
Arkansas.....	14	4	10
California.....	131	107	24
Colorado.....	13	8	5
Connecticut.....	18	13	5
Delaware.....	4	4	
District of Columbia.....	14	3	11
Florida.....	27	14	13
Georgia.....	4	2	2
Idaho.....	7	6	1
Illinois.....	20	19	1
Indiana.....	10	1	9
Iowa.....	33	7	26
Kansas.....	26	9	17
Kentucky.....	7	4	3
Louisiana.....	7	4	3
Maine.....	5	2	3
Maryland.....	36	30	6
Massachusetts.....	48	15	33
Michigan.....	40	25	15
Minnesota.....	57	25	32
Mississippi.....	5	3	2
Missouri.....	14	11	3
Nebraska.....	1		1
New Hampshire.....	3	2	1
New Jersey.....	41	24	17
New Mexico.....	7	5	2
New York.....	61	46	15
North Carolina.....	16	15	1
North Dakota.....	1	1	
Ohio.....	50	32	18
Oklahoma.....	36	12	24
Oregon.....	23	16	7
Pennsylvania.....	105	49	56
Rhode Island.....	9	3	6
South Carolina.....	6	4	2
South Dakota.....	4	1	3
Tennessee.....	7	3	4
Texas.....	94	33	61
Utah.....	18	16	2
Vermont.....	1	1	
Virginia.....	17	11	6
Washington.....	46	41	5
West Virginia.....	19	2	17
Wisconsin.....	43	26	17
Wyoming.....	8	2	6
TOTAL.....	1,170	670	500
PERCENTAGE SUMMARY.....	100	57.3	42.7

TABLE 3—NATION-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

Items	Number Responding*	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school . . .	1,244	1-5	3	3	
2. Enrollment	1,224	26-3,050	675		675.4
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	1,199	2-123	30.5		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	1,196	yes—407; no—789			
4. Number of periods per day . .	1,238	2-12	6	6	6.3
5. Length of class period (minutes)	1,243	30-83	50	55	
6. Time school day begins	1,248	6:55-12:40		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	1,248	12:03-5:20		3:30	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	1,230	0-100	43	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	1,204	0-10	3	3	3.4
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	1,236	yes—34; no—1,202			
15. a. Length of activity period . . .	764	5-90	45	30	
b. Number of periods per week . .	694	1-30	3.4	5	
c. Time of activity period	598	8:00-4:00		8-12	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	1,154	yes—137; no—1,017			
b. Length of snack period	133	5-45	9.8	15	
c. Time of snack period	128	9:00-3:15		10:00	
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	1,170	yes—670; no—500			
18. a. Number of schools having subject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 . . .	733				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	124				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order					
(a) English and social studies, 461 schools		(f) English, social studies, and			
(b) Math and science, 51 schools		math, 21 schools			
(c) Social studies and science, 32 schools		(g) English, social studies, and			
(d) History and geography, 25 schools		science, 18 schools			
(e) English, social studies, science, and		(h) English and math, 8 schools			
math, 22 schools		(i) All others, 99 schools			

*This column shows amount of response per item by the 1,250 schools. For example, Item 1 was answered by all but 6 schools and items 6-7 were answered by all but 2 schools.

TABLE 4—NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING,
BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN SCHOOL

State	No. of Schools Responding	Years in School				
		1	2	3	4	5
Alabama.....	13		7	6		
Arizona.....	1			1		
Arkansas.....	14			14		
California.....	141		5	126	9	1
Colorado.....	13		2	11		
Connecticut.....	20		1	19		
Delaware.....	4			4		
District of Columbia.....	17			17		
Florida.....	32		10	22		
Georgia.....	4		3	1		
Idaho.....	7		1	5	1	
Illinois.....	21		5	16		
Indiana.....	11		5	6		
Iowa.....	36	1	9	25	1	
Kansas.....	26		3	23		
Kentucky.....	7			7		
Louisiana.....	9		4	5		
Maine.....	5			5		
Maryland.....	36		2	34		
Massachusetts.....	52		16	35	1	
Michigan.....	40		8	32		
Minnesota.....	59		1	58		
Mississippi.....	5		1	3	1	
Missouri.....	18		7	10	1	
Nebraska.....	1			1		
New Hampshire.....	3			3		
New Jersey.....	41		4	37		
New Mexico.....	8		3	5		
New York.....	65		12	50	3	
North Carolina.....	16		1	14	1	
North Dakota.....	5			5		
Ohio.....	51		2	49		
Oklahoma.....	36		1	34	1	
Oregon.....	26		9	17		
Pennsylvania.....	109		6	102	1	
Rhode Island.....	12		1	11		
South Carolina.....	7		3	4		
South Dakota.....	4			4		
Tennessee.....	8			8		
Texas.....	102		9	93		
Utah.....	18		1	17		
Vermont.....	1			1		
Virginia.....	18		4	14		
Washington.....	48		4	44		
West Virginia.....	21		5	16		
Wisconsin.....	45		6	39		
Wyoming.....	8		7	1		
TOTAL.....	1,244	1	168	1,054	20	1
PERCENTAGE SUMMARY.....	100	0.1	13.5	84.7	1.6	0.1

TABLE 5—NUMBER AND TOTAL ENROLLMENT OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING, BY STATE

State	TOTAL NUMBER		TOTAL ENROLLMENT	
	Responding	In Each State	Of Those Responding	In Each State
Alabama	13	247	5,641	29,280
Arizona	1	11	675	6,248
Arkansas	13	49	10,891	13,218
California	140	172	168,884	179,922
Colorado	13	53	9,591	24,348
Connecticut	18	39	11,985	18,150
Delaware	4	16	2,138	3,347
District of Columbia	17	21	15,264	20,303
Florida	32	154	26,580	46,108
Georgia	4	66	3,704	16,563
Idaho	7	23	5,112	10,412
Illinois	21	142	16,175	45,581
Indiana	11	59	6,099	23,126
Iowa	35	101	18,991	28,920
Kansas	26	54	13,646	23,694
Kentucky	7	38	5,326	15,766
Louisiana	8	41	6,332	10,626
Maine	5	9	2,930	3,357
Maryland	35	58	31,058	38,167
Massachusetts	51	158	28,676	69,389
Michigan	39	128	33,640	76,602
Minnesota	59	80	35,501	33,654
Mississippi	5	31	4,369	10,591
Missouri	18	31	12,651	18,463
Montana	0	23		5,543
Nebraska	1	25	340	7,686
Nevada	0	1		411
New Hampshire	3	12	2,733	3,395
New Jersey	39	70	26,813	31,015
New Mexico	8	24	4,719	12,905
New York	63	151	66,488	128,968
North Carolina	15	39	11,137	16,306
North Dakota	5	6	3,315	2,501
Ohio	50	112	40,320	65,690
Oklahoma	35	96	27,028	40,406
Oregon	24	36	13,013	12,847
Pennsylvania	110	216	82,600	128,839
Rhode Island	13	32	8,753	13,721
South Carolina	7	25	6,655	9,154
South Dakota	4	5	1,751	1,940
Tennessee	8	39	6,606	18,491
Texas	100	192	85,153	116,643
Utah	17	62	10,716	25,890
Vermont	1		277	
Virginia	17	37	13,007	17,436
Washington	48	75	34,725	42,823
West Virginia	22	105	8,177	32,212
Wisconsin	45	49	26,207	22,268
Wyoming	8	14	3,628	4,071
TOTAL	1,225	3,227	960,020	1,526,996

Note: (1) Questionnaire forms were sent to junior high-school principals who were members of the NASSP on Nov. 1, 1956, and to a small number of others. The forms were not sent to all junior high schools. (2) The total of the first column indicates number of schools replying to item 2 in the questionnaire. (3) Source of data in columns 3 and 5: *Statistics of Public Secondary Day Schools 1951-52*, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

TABLE 6—NATION-WIDE DATA ON TWO-YEAR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.
(172 Responding*)

<i>Items</i>	<i>Responding Number</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median Mode Mean</i>		
1. Years which make up the two-year junior HS	172	8-9 (10); 7-8 (162)			
2. Enrollment	165	54-1853	439		522.8
3. Number of schools having more men than women teachers	172			53	
4. Number of periods per day	171	6-12	6	6	6.5
5. Length of class period (minutes)	170	35-83	52.5	50	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	168	10-75	43	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	162	0-10	3	3	3.4
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	169	Yes-5; no-164			
15. Number of schools having an activity period	139	yes-118; no-21			
16. Number of schools having a snack period	152	yes-19; no-133			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	155	yes-76; no-79			
18. a. Number of schools having subject-matter combinations	91	yes-91			
b. Commonest types of subject-matter combinations by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies,	40	Schools			
(b) Language arts and social studies,	16	"			
(c) Math and science,	15	"			
(d) History and geography,	2	"			
(e) English, social studies, and math,	2	"			
(f) English and history,	2	"			
(g) English and reading,	2	"			
(h) Others,	12	"			

Note: Two-year junior high schools of grades 8-9 are uncommon; the majority is found in the southern states. Cf. Table 4 for distribution of 2-year junior high schools by state, Table 3 for comparable data on all responding junior high schools, and Table 7 for comparable data on junior high schools over 1,000 enrollment.

*Includes some schools responding late. Therefore, this number does not reconcile with the totals in Table 4. (Column 3).

TABLE 7—NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, OVER 1,000 ENROLLMENT REPORTING BLOCK-OF-TIME CLASSES, BY STATE

<i>State</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Reporting block-time classes</i>	<i>Reporting no block-time classes</i>
Arkansas	4	2	2
California	88	71	17
Colorado	2	2	
Connecticut	2	2	
District of Columbia	5		5
Florida	8	5	3
Georgia	2	2	
Idaho	1	1	
Illinois	2	2	
Iowa	4	4	
Kansas	1	1	
Kentucky	1	1	
Maryland	14	10	4
Massachusetts	3	1	2
Michigan	12	7	5
Minnesota	9	7	2
Mississippi	1	1	
Missouri	4	3	1
New Hampshire	1	1	
New Jersey	7	4	3
New Mexico	1	1	
New York	30	26	4
North Carolina	4	4	
Ohio	19	16	3
Oklahoma	12	4	8
Oregon	2	2	
Pennsylvania	23	17	6
Rhode Island	1	1	
South Carolina	3	2	1
Tennessee	2	2	
Texas	27	11	16
Utah	2	2	
Virginia	4	3	1
Washington	12	12	
West Virginia	1		1
Wisconsin	5	2	3
Wyoming	1		1
TOTAL	320	232	88
Percentage reporting block-time classes 72.5%			
Note: Cf. Table 2 for comparable data on all responding junior high schools.			

TABLE 8—NATION-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, OVER 1,000 ENROLLMENT, COMPILED FROM STATE MEDIANS, MODES, AND AVERAGES

	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	338	2-4	3	3	
2. Enrollment	338	1000-3050	1227		13,452
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	328	33-123	51.5		
b. Number of schools having more men than women	329	yes-110			
4. Number of periods per day	334	5-12	6	6	6.3
5. Length of class period (minutes)	338	38-61	50	50	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	332	20-90	30	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	332	0-13	4	5	3.9
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	334	yes-19; no-315			
15. Length of activity period	163	15-90	45	45	
16. Number of schools having a snack period	316	yes-72; no-244			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	320	yes-232; no-88			
18. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations	288	yes-246; no-42			

Note: Types of subject-matter combinations (ordinarily 18b) in junior high schools over 1,000 enrollment do not differ substantially from commonest types of subject-matter combinations in all junior high schools as indicated in Table 3 and also in state-by-state tables. Therefore, they are omitted in this table.

Part II

DATA BY STATES

The purpose of including state tables is to enable principals in the states to ascertain patterns of practice within the state and to compare the state-wide patterns with nation-wide practices. It is not intended that these tables provide a basis for comparison between states. In fact, such comparison would be unreliable because of the significant differences in percentage of schools responding by state. The questionnaire form was not distributed according to a geographic, regional, or state sampling. It was sent to all junior high-school principals on the membership rolls of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the replies could not be classified as other than a random, unstructured sample. Table 5 illustrates this point: 140 of a total of 172 junior high schools in California are represented in the data, while only four of a total of 66 junior high schools in Georgia are represented.

Included in Part II are those 30 states from which 10 or more junior high schools responded. The 15 states with fewer than 9 responding

schools are omitted. Data from these 15 states are on file with the Committee on Junior High School Education and they will be sent to anyone requesting them. As reported, heretofore, nation-wide data are from 46 states and the District of Columbia. No data for Montana and Nevada were received.

It is significant that over 63 per cent of all junior high-school pupils are represented in the data—959,403 out of 1,526,996 total U. S. enrollment. The number of schools in the study amounts to 62.2 per cent of schools who were sent the questionnaire form and 38.6 per cent of all junior high schools in the United States. It is obvious that the large 3-year junior high schools are better represented in this report than the smaller junior high schools (under 250 enrollment).

STATE-BY-STATE TABLES

In all state tables, the "Number Responding" is given opposite each questionnaire item to show the varying degree of response. Practically all junior high schools replied to queries about years in school, enrollment, number of professional staff, number of periods per day, length of class period, passing time between classes, and similar routine information. Other items, such as those dealing with activity period, snack period, and block-of-time classes, received replies from a majority, but not all, of the respondents.

Caution: Item 18c on state tables, the total of the "Commonest types of combinations" of subject matter in grades 7, 8, or 9, is not intended to agree with 18a. Many junior high schools have more than one type of block-of-time subject matter combination. In addition some schools have block-of-time classes that do not cut across subject matter lines. If there is any numerical agreement between 18a and 18c, it just happened that way.

We believe that for the state tables the median is a more indicative statistic than either mode (fashion) or mean (average), although items, such as time of day, passing time between classes, and duration of lunch period, can be more adequately described in terms of the mode.

The tabular material in the study speaks for itself. It is not necessary, in our judgment, to add pages of explanatory text. The raw data from which the tables were derived are under safe-keeping in our national office. Anyone wishing to secure further information about these materials is invited to write to us. We hope that the statistics presented are as accurate as we tried to make them.

The Committee on Junior High School Education has additional projects scheduled for completion this year. Fact-finding and status studies are only a prelude to qualitative inquiry. To travel, however, one must begin his journey from some point and that point must be known to him. In the journey to its goal of more and better information on junior high schools, that is the place where the Committee now finds itself.

We deeply appreciate the co-operation of the junior high-school principals who furnished information for this study.

TABLE 9—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

ALABAMA

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school	13	2-3	2	2	
2.	Enrollment	13	175-903	332		433.9
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	13	5-36	12		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	13	yes-1; no-12			
4.	Number of periods per day . .	13	6-9	7	7	7.4
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	12	35-56	48	50	
6.	Time school day begins	13	7:55-8:20		8:00	
7.	Time school day ends	13	2:40-3:15		3:00	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	13	15-48	30	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	13	2-5	3	5	3.3
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	13	no-13			
15. a.	Length of activity period	11	20-80	45		
b.	Number of periods per week . .	10	1-5	4.5		
c.	Time of activity period	12	10:00-2:15		10:15	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	13	yes-4; no-9			
b.	Length of snack period	4	10-15	12.5		
c.	Time of snack period	3	10:00		10:00	
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	13	yes-8; no-5			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	9				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	5				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order					
	(a) English and social studies, 5 schools		(d) English, math, and social studies, 1 school			
	(b) Math and science, 2 schools		(e) Science and social studies, 1 school			
	(c) English and language arts, 1 school					

TABLE 10—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

ARKANSAS

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school ..	14	3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	13	199-1460	875		837.7
3. a.	Number of professional staff ..	14	7-50	30.5		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers....	14	yes-1; no-13			
4.	Number of periods per day....	14	6-18	6	6	6.2
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	14	42-60	55	55	
6.	Time school day begins	14	8:20-8:45		8:45	
7.	Time school day ends	14	3:05-3:45		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	14	28-50	30	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	14	3-5	5	5	4.1
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	14	no-14			
15. a.	Length of activity period	9	15-50	30	30	
b.	Number of periods per week ..	9	1-5	5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	7	8:00-2:00			
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	14	no-13; yes-1			
b.	Length of snack period	1	8 minutes			
c.	Time of snack period	1	10:30			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	14	yes-4; no-10			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	5				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	3				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order					
	(a) English and social studies, 2 schools					
	(b) Math and science, 2 schools					
	(c) English and geography, 1 school					

TABLE 11—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

CALIFORNIA

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median Mode Mean</i>		
1. Years in junior high school . . .	141	2-5	3	3	
2. Enrollment	140	107-2807	1162		1314.6
2. a. Number of professional staff . .	138	9-107	51		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	137	yes-69; no-68			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	141	5-10	6	6	6.6
5. Length of class period (minutes)	141	43-60	50	50	
6. Time school day begins	141	7:35-9:30		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	141	2:20-4:20		3:00	
12. Length of lunch periods minutes	141	30-70	45	50	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	141	3-10	5	5	5.1
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	138	yes-7; no-131			
15. a. Length of activity period	41	19-60	45		
b. Number of periods per week . .	35	1-6	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	30	8:15-4:00	2:45-3:00		
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	117	yes-66; no-51			
b. Length of snack period	66	5-20	14	15	
c. Time of snack period	64	9:00-2:35	10:30		
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	131	yes-107; no-24			
18. a. Number of schools having subject-matter combinations in 7, 8, and/or 9	115				
b. Number of different subject-matter combinations	7				
c. Commonest types of combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 91 schools		(d) English, social studies, and science, 5 schools			
(b) English, social studies, and math, 8 schools		(e) English, social studies, science and math, 4 schools			
(c) English, social studies, guidance and geography, 5 schools		(f) English and math, 1 school			
		(g) English and Spanish, 1 school			

TABLE 12—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

COLORADO

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	13	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	13	265-1340	725		737.2
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	12	12-54	29		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	12	yes-4; no-8			
4.	Number of periods per day . .	13	6-9	7	6	7.0
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	13	40-55	46	45-50	
6.	Time school day begins	13	8:00-9:00		8:45	
7.	Time school day ends	13	3:00-4:00		3:20	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	13	25-55	45	45	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	13	3-5	4	5	4.0
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	13	yes-1; no-12			
15. a.	Length of activity period	8	15-50	35	25	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	7	1-5	2.5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	6	8:45-2:40		11:25	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	12	no-12			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	13	yes-8; no-5			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	9				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	3				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 8 schools					
	(b) Math and science, 1 school					
	(c) Language arts and social studies, 1 school					

TABLE 13—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

CONNECTICUT

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	20	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	18	274-1198	609		665.8
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	18	19-50	31		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	18	yes-6; no-12			
4.	Number of periods per day . .	20	5-9	7	7	6.8
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	20	40-55	45	40	
6.	Time school day begins	20	8:05-12:30		8:20	
7.	Time school day ends	20	2:07-5:05			
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	20	0-100	29		
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	20	0-5	3		2.9
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	20	yes-1; no-19			
15. a.	Length of activity period . . .	19	40-90	45	40	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	18	1-6	5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	16	9:00-2:32		1:15	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	19	yes-1; no-18			
b.	Length of snack period	1	5			
c.	Time of snack period	1	2:45			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	18	yes-13; no-5			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	14				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	7				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 8 schools		(d) Language arts, social studies, and guidance, 1 school			
	(b) English, social studies, science, and math, 2 schools		(e) English, social studies, guidance and library, 1 school			
	(c) Math and science, 2 schools		(f) Others, 2 schools			

TABLE 14—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Items	Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school	17	9	3	3	
2. Enrollment	17	620-1526	780		897.8
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	17	28-70	38		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	17	yes-1; no-16			
4. Number of periods per day	17	5-8	7	7	6.4
5. Length of class period (minutes)	17	45-55	50	45	
6. Time school day begins	17	9:00		9:00	
7. Time school day ends	17	3:00-3:05		3:00	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	17	25-51	35	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	14	0-5	3	6	3.2
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	16	yes-0; no-16			
15. a. Length of activity period	15	20-48	35	45	
b. Number of periods per week . .	15	1-5	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	12	9:00-2:15		12:00	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	16	no-16			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	14	yes-3; no-11			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	3				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	4				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 2 schools					
(b) Math and science, 2 schools					
(c) History and geography, 1 school					
(d) General business and math, 1 school					

TABLE 15—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

FLORIDA

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	32	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	32	134-1961	738		830.6
3. a.	Number of professional staff . . .	31	6-83	29		
	b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	31	yes-8; no-23			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	31	6-7	6	6	6.0
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	32	50-60	55	55	
6.	Time school day begins	32	8:15-8:50		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	32	2:50-4:30	3:00-3:15		
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	32	24-45	30	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	32	2-5	4	3	3.9
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	32	yes-1; no-31			
15. a.	Length of activity period	16	15-63	43	45	
	b. Number of periods per week . .	15	1-10	1	1	
	c. Time of activity period	12	8:30-2:10			
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	25	yes-1; no-24			
	b. Length of snack period	1	10			
	c. Time of snack period	1	10:30			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	27	yes-14; no-13			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	13				
	b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	5				
	c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 9 schools					
	(b) Math and science, 4 schools					
	(c) Others, 3 schools					

TABLE 16—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

ILLINOIS

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school	21	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	21	300-2230	686		770.2
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	20	13-78	31		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	20	yes-7; no-13			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	21	6-9	7	7	7.0
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	21	40-60	50	45-50	
6.	Time school day begins	21	8:05-9:10		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	21	2:35-4:00		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	20	26-60	43	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	21	3-5	4	4	4.2
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	19	yes-1; no-18			
15. a.	Length of activity period	13	30-50	44	30	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	9	1-5	5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	10	10:00-3:00		2:50	
16. a.	Number of school having a snack period	15	no-15			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	20	yes-19; no-1			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	19				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	9				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a)	English and social studies, 16 schools		(c) English, social studies, and math,			
(b)	Science and math, 3 schools		1 school			
(c)	English, spelling, and math, 1 school		(f) English and math, 1 school			
(d)	Language arts and math, 1 school		(g) Others, 3 schools			

TABLE 17—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

INDIANA

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	11	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	11	324-876	550		554.4
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	11	13-25	24		
	b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	11	yes-6; no-5			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	11	6-8	6	6	6.5
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	11	48-56	50	50	
6.	Time school day begins	11	8:05-8:30		8:10-8:15	
7.	Time school day ends	11	3:10-4:00		3:40	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	11	40-75	55	60	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	11	4-5	5	5	4.7
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	11	no-11			
15. a.	Length of activity period	9	20-50	40	40	
	b. Number of periods per week . .	8	1-5	2	1	
	c. Time of activity period	6	8:00-1:00		10:15	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	10	no-10			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	10	no-9; yes-1			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	1				
	b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	1				
	c. The subject-matter combination is English and geography					

TABLE 18—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

IOWA

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	36	1-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	35	66-1190	572		542.6
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	30	4-48	24		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	30	yes-7; no-23			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	36	6-7	6	6	6.1
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	36	50-60	55	55-57	
6.	Time school day begins	36	8:30-9:00		8:45	
7.	Time school day ends	36	3:00-4:00		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	36	20-80	50	50	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	36	2-5	3	3	3.5
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	36	no-36			
15. a.	Length of activity period	16	30-60	45	30	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	15	1-5	5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	14	8:30-3:00		8:30	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	34	yes-3; no-31			
b.	Length of snack period	3	5-15		10	
c.	Time of snack period	3	10:00-3:15		2:15	
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	33	yes-7; no-26			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	10				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	6				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 4 schools		(d) Language arts core, 1 school			
	(b) English and geography, 2 schools		(e) Others, 2 schools			
	(c) Geography and history, 1 school					

TABLE 19—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

KANSAS

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	26	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	26	99-1244	512		524.8
3. a.	Number on professional staff . .	26	7-43	20		
	b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	26	yes-7; no-19			
4.	Number of periods per day . .	26	5-8	6	6	6.0
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	26	45-60	55	55	
6.	Time school day begins	26	8:00-9:00		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	26	3:00-4:00		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods	26	28-75	60	60	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	26	2-4	3	3	3.1
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	25	no-25			
15. a.	Length of activity period	24	27-55	30	30	
	b. Number of periods per week . .	23	1-5	5	5	
	c. Time of activity period	22	8:10-3:10			
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	26	no-26			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	26	yes-9; no-17			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	9				
	b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	6				
	c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 5 schools					
	(b) English and math, 1 school					
	(c) Math and social studies, 1 school					
	(d) Others, 3 schools					

TABLE 20—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

MARYLAND

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	36	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	35	112-2242	791		887.3
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	35	6-90	43		
	b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	33	yes-8; no-25			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	36	5-8	6	6	6.4
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	36	45-60	50	50	
6.	Time school day begins	36	8:20-12:15		9:00	
7.	Time school day ends	36	2:40-4:45		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods	36	20-56	31	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	34	2-5	3	3	3.5
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	36	yes-2; no-34			
15. a.	Length of activity period	22	25-85	50	50	
	b. Number of periods per week . .	20	1-5	2	1	
	c. Time of activity period	9	9:00-2:40		9:00	
16.	Number of schools having a snack period	34	no-34			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	36	yes-30; no-6			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	33				
	b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	7				
	c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 22 schools		(c) English and history, 3 schools			
	(b) English and social studies, and science, 5 schools		(d) History and geography, 3 schools			
			(e) Others, 3 schools			

TABLE 21—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

MASSACHUSETTS

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	52	2-4	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	51	26-1281	552		562.2
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	50	2-57	24		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	50	yes-12; no-38			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	52	4-8	6	6	6.4
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	51	35-55	45	45	
6.	Time school day begins	52	8:00-12:20		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	51	1:30-3:15		2:00	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	50	15-90	25	25	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	46	1-4	2	2	2.5
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	52	yes-3; no-49			
15. a.	Length of activity period	36	5-60	45	45	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	35	1-7	2	1	
c.	Time of activity period	28	8:30-2:30			
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	51	yes-11; no-40			
b.	Length of snack period	10	5-15	8	8	
c.	Time of snack period	10	9:35-2:34		10:00	
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	48	yes-15; no-33			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	24				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	10				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a)	English and social studies, 13 schools		(e) English and literature, 2 schools			
(b)	Math and science, 3 schools		(f) Music and art, 1 school			
(c)	History and geography, 2 schools		(g) Math, science, and guidance, 1 school			
(d)	English, social studies, math and science, 2 schools		(h) Social studies and math, 1 school			
			(i) Others, 2 schools			

TABLE 22—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

MICHIGAN

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median Mode Mean</i>		
1. Years in junior high school . . .	40	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	39	135-2025	846		862.5
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	40	4-72	35		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	40	yes-17; no-23			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	40	2-9	7	6	6.6
5. Length of class period (minutes)	40	42-55	50	55	
6. Time school day begins	40	8:00-9:00		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	40	3:00-4:05		3:25	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	40	20-80	45	60	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	40	0-5	4	5	4.1
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	40	yes-3; no-37			
15. a. Length of activity period	15	25-60	45		
b. Number of periods per week . .	15	1-5	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	15	8:00-3:10		8:00-10:00	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	40	yes-1; no-39			
b. Length of snack period	1	varies			
c. Time of snack period	1	all classes			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	40	yes-25; no-15			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	24				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	7				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 20 schools					
(b) Math and science, 9 schools					
(c) English and geography, 3 schools					
(d) Others, 4 schools					

TABLE 23--STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

MINNESOTA

Items	Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school . . .	59	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	59	75-1850	493		612.0
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	56	3-81	27		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	56	yes-32; no-24			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	59	5-8	6	6	6.2
5. Length of class period (minutes)	59	45-60	55	55	
6. Time school day begins	59	8:00-12:15		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	59	2:33-5:20		3:30	
12. Length of lunch periods	59	15-80	35	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	59	2-5	3	3	3.7
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	59	yes-1; no-58			
15. a. Length of activity period	35	20-60	57	60	
b. Number of periods per week . .	35	1-10	4	5	
c. Time of activity period	35	8:00-3:40		varies	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	57	yes-9; no-48			
b. Length of snack period	9	5-15	8	6-10	
c. Time of snack period	9	9:38-3:00		10:00	
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	57	yes-25; no-32			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	26				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	5				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 22 schools		(d) Social studies and geography, 1 school			
(b) Math and science, 1 school		(e) Art, music, P. E., and home eco- nomics, 1 school			
(c) Literature and music, 1 school					

TABLE 24—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

MISSOURI

Items	Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school . . .	18	2-4	3	3	
2. Enrollment	18	165-1504	715		702.8
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	18	8-64	34		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	18	yes-2; no-16			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	18	5-8	6	6	6.3
5. Length of class period (minutes)	18	44-60	55	55	
6. Time school day begins	18	8:24-9:00		8:40	
7. Time school day ends	18	2:50-4:00		3:20	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	18	23-60	30	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	18	2-5	4	4	3.8
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	18	no-18			
15. a. Length of activity period	8	25-60	45/50	60	
b. Number of periods per week . .	7	1-5	3	3 and 5	
c. Time of activity period	7	8:00-3:05		2:35-3:05	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	13	yes-1; no-12			
b. Length of snack period	1	10			
c. Time of snack period	1	10:00			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	14	yes-11; no-3			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	12				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	6				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 8 schools					
(b) English, social studies, and science, 1 school					
(c) English, social studies, and guid- ance, 1 school					
(d) Others, 3 schools					

TABLE 25—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

NEW JERSEY

Items	Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school . . .	41	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	39	215-1786	565		687.5
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	37	12-76	31		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	37	yes-12; no-25			
4. Number of periods per day	41	6-12	7	7	7.0
5. Length of class period (minutes)	41	40-60	47	50	
6. Time school day begins	41	7:45-12:40		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	41	12:18-5:08		3:00-3:15	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	39	20-80	33	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	41	0-5	3	3	2.9
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	41	yes-2; no-39			
15. a. Length of activity period	30	30-60	45	45	
b. Number of periods per week . .	30	1-5	3	1	
c. Time of activity period	25	8:35-2:45		2:30	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	41	yes-1; no-40			
b. Length of snack period	1	5	5	5	
c. Time of snack period	1	10:06			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	41	yes-24; no-17			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	26				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	6				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 23 schools	23	(d) Social studies and science, 1 school			
(b) Math and science, 4 schools	4	(e) Geography and history, 1 school			
(c) Language arts, precise arts and social studies, 1 school	1	(f) Others, 1 school			

TABLE 26—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

NEW YORK

Items	Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school . . .	65	2-4	3	3	
2. Enrollment	63	200-2550	1015	1055.3	
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	60	12-123	49		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	60	yes-16; no-44			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	63	5-12	7	7	7.0
5. Length of class period (minutes)	65	40-60	45	45	
6. Time school day begins	64	7:40-12:30		8:40	
7. Time school day ends	65	2:30-4:50		3:00	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	64	10-75	45	45	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	58	2-5	3	3	3.3
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	65	yes-6; no-59			
15. a. Length of activity period . . .	37	30-60	42	40-45	
b. Number of periods per week . .	18	1-6	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	17	8:30-4:00			
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	61	yes-6; no-55			
b. Length of snack period	4	10-45	17		
c. Time of snack period	3	2:00-3:00			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	61	yes-46; no-15			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	44				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	12				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 28 schools					(f) English and math, 1 school
(b) English and citizenship, 6 schools					(g) English, social studies, group guid- ance, 1 school
(c) Science and math, 2 schools					(h) General education, 1 school
(d) English, social studies, and math, 1 school					(i) CRMD, 1 school
(e) English, citizenship, and math, 1 school					(j) Others, 3 schools

TABLE 27—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

NORTH CAROLINA

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	16	2-4	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	15	154-1303	600		742.4
3. a.	Number of professional staff . . .	16	5-51	28		
	b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	16	no-16			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	16	5-7	6	6	6.3
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	16	40-60	50	50	
6.	Time school day begins	16	8:30-12:15		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	16	3:00-4:00		3:15	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	15	23-50	30	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	16	3-5	4	3	3.8
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	16	yes-1; no-15			
15. a.	Length of activity period	15	23-50	40	40	
	b. Number of periods per week . .	15	2-5	4	5	
	c. Time of activity period	13	10:16-1:50		10:16-11:00	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	16	yes-3; no-13			
	b. Length of snack period	3	10-15			
	c. Time of snack period	3	9:50-10:41		10:25	
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	16	yes-15; no-1			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	14				
	b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	6				
	c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 9 schools					
	(b) Math and science, 4 schools					
	(c) English, social studies, math and science, 3 schools					
	(d) Others, 3 schools					

TABLE 28—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

OHIO

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	51	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	50	150-1535	760		806.4
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	50	7-74	31		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	48	yes-19; no-29			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	51	6-10	8	8/9	7.96
5. Length of class period (minutes)	51	36-58	45	45	
6. Time school day begins	51	8:00-9:00		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	51	3:00-3:45		3:30	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	51	25-75	40	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	49	2-5	3	3	3.45
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	51	no-51			
15. a. Length of activity period	33	15-90	40	45	
b. Number of periods per week . .	33	1-5	4	5	
c. Time of activity period	30	8:10-3:00	evenly divided		
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	46	no-46			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	50	yes-32; no-18			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	27				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	14				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 12 schools					(f) English, social studies, math, and science, 1 school
(b) English, social studies, and geogra- phy, 5 schools					(g) English, social studies, and science, 1 school
(c) Math and science, 3 schools					(h) Social studies and health, 1 school
(d) English, social studies, and math, 2 schools					(i) English and geography, 1 school
(e) Health, guidance, and safety, 1 school					(j) Citizenship and geography, 1 school
					(k) English, geography and civics, 1 school
					(l) Other, 3 schools

TABLE 29—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

OKLAHOMA

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	35	2-4	3	3	
2. Enrollment	35	90-1850	720		772.2
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	35	3-61	30		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	35	yes-7; no-28			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	36	5-7	6	6	5.8
5. Length of class period (minutes)	36	45-75	55	55	
6. Time school day begins	36	8:00-9:00	8:30-8:45		
7. Time school day ends	36	2:55-4:00	3:30		
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	36	30-80	43		
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	36	3-6	5	5	4.6
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	36	no-36			
15. a. Length of activity period . . .	18	26-75	50		
b. Number of periods per week . .	16	1-5	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	15	8:30-3:15			
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	36	yes-1; no-35			
b. Length of snack period	1	5-10			
c. Time of snack period	1	10:08			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	36	yes-12; no-24			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	14				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	4				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 11 schools					
(b) Math and science, 2 schools					
(c) English, math, and social studies, 1 school					
(d) English, spelling, history, and geography, 1 school					

TABLE 30—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

OREGON

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	26	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	24	175-1388	470		542.2
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	26	8-55	20		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	26	yes-15; no-11			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	26	6-8	7	6/7	6.6
5. Length of class period (minutes)	25	40-60	50	50	
6. Time school day begins	26	8:00-1:00		8:00-8:15	
7. Time school day ends	26	3:00-5:30		3:30	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	24	17-70	45	45-50	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	25	3-5	3	3	3.6
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	25	yes-1; no-24			
15. a. Length of activity period . . .	14	30-50	42	30	
b. Number of periods per week . .	12	1-5	4	5	
c. Time of activity period	10	9:30-3:17			
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	24	yes-2; no-22			
b. Length of snack period	2	5-13	9		
c. Time of snack period	2	10:30-3:06			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	23	no-7; yes-16			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	17				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	5				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) Social studies and language arts, 11 schools					
(b) English, social studies, and math, 3 schools					
(c) English, social studies, math, and science, 1 school					
(d) Others, 2 schools					

TABLE 31—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

PENNSYLVANIA

Items	Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1. Years in junior high school . . .	110	2-4	3	3	
2. Enrollment	110	130-1850	701		750.9
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	104	5-87	29		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	105	yes-46; no-59			
4. Number of periods per day . .	109	5-11	7	7	7.1
5. Length of class period (minutes)	111	38-60	45	45	
6. Time school day begins	111	7:50-12:30		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	111	12:30-4:50		3:30	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	107	20-90	45	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	102	0-5	3	3	3.2
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	111	yes-2; no-109			
15. a. Length of activity period	98	25-90	45	45	
b. Number of periods per week . .	94	1-30	3	5	
c. Time of activity period	68	8:30-3:25		1:00	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	110	yes-1; no-109			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	105	yes-49; no-56			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations	55				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	16				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 20 schools		(f) Geography, history, and science, 1 school			
(b) Geography and history, 12 schools		(g) General education, 1 school			
(c) English, history and geography, 6 schools		(h) English and geography, 1 school			
(d) English, social studies, math, and science, 4 schools		(i) English, social studies, and math, 1 school			
(e) Social studies and math, 2 schools		(j) Geography and science, 1 school			
		(k) Others, 6 schools			

TABLE 32—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

RHODE ISLAND

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	12	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	13	288-1230	501		673.3
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	12	16-64	33		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	12	yes-5; no-7			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	13	6-7	6	6	6.3
5. Length of class period (minutes)	13	40-50	48	50	
6. Time school day begins	13	8:15-8:45		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	13	12:20-3:00		2:30	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	12	20-47	22	20/30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	11	1-4	2	2	2.6
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	13	yes-1; no-12			
15. a. Length of activity period	9	30-50	40		
b. Number of periods per week . .	8	1/2-5	4	5	
c. Time of activity period	7	8:30-1:15		12:00-2:00	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	10	yes-2; no-8			
b. Length of snack period	2	11-15			
c. Time of snack period	2	9:30-10:00			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	9	yes-3; no-6			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	3				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	3				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English, social studies, and math, 1 school					
(b) English and social studies, 1 school					
(c) Science, math, and language arts, 1 school					

TABLE 33—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

TEXAS

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	102	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	100	100-3050	782		851.5
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	98	4-103	36		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	99	yes-7; no-92			
4.	Number of periods per day . . .	99	5-9	6	6	6.5
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	101	40-65	55	55	
6.	Time school day begins	102	8:00-9:00		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	102	2:55-4:00		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods	101	25-60	30	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	99	3-6	5	5	4.7
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	101	no-101			
15. a.	Length of activity period	67	15-85	30	30	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	62	1-30	5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	58	8:20-3:00			
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	98	yes-5; no-93			
b.	Length of snack period	5	5-15	10	10	
c.	Time of snack period	5	9:40-10:40		10:20	
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	94	yes-33; no-61			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	58				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	16				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a)	English and social studies, 29 schools		(g)	Social studies, science, and health, 1 school		
(b)	Language arts core, 17 schools		(h)	Photography and printing, 1 school		
(c)	English, history, and math, 3 schools		(i)	English, social studies, and health, 1 school		
(d)	English, history, and geography, 3 schools		(j)	English and math, 1 school		
(e)	English, social studies, science, and math, 1 school		(k)	Science and health, 1 school		
(f)	Art and music, 1 school		(l)	Others, 5 schools		

TABLE 34—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

UTAH

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	18	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	17	86-1185	670	630.3	
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	18	4-41	24		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . . .	18	yes-17; no-1			
4. Number of periods per day	18	6-7	6	6	6.4
5. Length of class period (minutes)	18	45-60	46	55	
6. Time school day begins	18	6:55-9:00		9:00	
7. Time school day ends	18	12:03-4:15		3:30	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	18	25-60	35	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	18	4-5	5	5	4.9
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	17	yes-1; no-16			
15. a. Length of activity period	6	30-55	45	45/55	
b. Number of periods per week . .	7	1-5	1	1	
c. Time of activity period	4	10:30-2:45		11:00	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	17	yes-1; no-16			
b. Length of snack period	1	10			
c. Time of snack period	1	10:43			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	18	yes-16; no-2			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	16				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	3				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) Social studies and language arts, 14 schools					
(b) Science and math, 1 school					
(c) Geography and music, 1 school					

TABLE 35—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

VIRGINIA

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	18	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	17	281-1325	649		765.1
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	16	14-62	37		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	16	no-16			
4. Number of periods per day . .	18	6-7	6	6	6.1
5. Length of class period (minutes)	18	45-59	55	55	
6. Time school day begins	18	8:15-9:00		8:40	
7. Time school day ends	18	2:46-3:30		3:15	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	18	22-55	30	30	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	16	2-5	4	3	3.7
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	18	no-18			
15. a. Length of activity period	17	19-55	30		
b. Number of periods per week . .	13	1-5	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	11	8:40-2:40		8:40/10:40	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	18	no-18			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	17	yes-11; no-6			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	11				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	3				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 7 schools					
(b) English, social studies, math, and science, 3 schools					
(c) Science and health, 1 school					

TABLE 36—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

WASHINGTON

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median	Mode	Mean
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	48	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	48	80-1500	700		723.4
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	47	4-61	30		
	b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	47	yes—35; no—12			
4.	Number of periods per day . .	48	5-7	6	6	6.1
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	48	45-72	55	55	
6.	Time school day begins	48	8:00-9:09		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	48	2:40-3:45		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	48	25-50	40	30	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	48	3-6	4	4	4.1
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	48	no—48			
15. a.	Length of activity period	25	5-65	40	30	
	b. Number of periods per week . .	21	1-6	5	5	
	c. Time of activity period	19	8:55-2:35		11:20	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	43	yes—1; no—42			
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	46	yes—41; no—5			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	44				
	b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	9				
	c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 34 schools		(d) English, social studies, and math, 2 schools			
	(b) English, social studies, and science, 3 schools		(e) Math and science, 1 school			
	(c) English, math, and geography, 2 schools		(f) Math and English, 1 school			
			(g) Language arts core, 1 school			
			(h) Others, 2 schools			

TABLE 37—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

WEST VIRGINIA

<i>Items</i>	<i>Number Responding</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Years in junior high school . . .	21	2-3	3	3	
2. Enrollment	22	54-1254	337-360		371.6
3. a. Number of professional staff . .	21	3-38	13		
b. Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	21	yes-3; no-18			
4. Number of periods per day . . .	22	6-12	6.5	6	6.7
5. Length of class period (minutes)	21	30-60	50	45	
6. Time school day begins	22	7:45-9:00		8:30	
7. Time school day ends	22	2:30-4:00		3:00	
12. Length of lunch periods (minutes)	22	30-60	45	45	
13. Time for passing between classes (minutes)	22	1-5	3	3	3.3
14. Number of schools on double or staggered session	22	no-22			
15. a. Length of activity period . . .	18	15-60	45	none	
b. Number of periods per week . .	15	1-5	5	5	
c. Time of activity period	11	11:15-2:50		none	
16. a. Number of schools having a snack period	21	yes-1; no-20			
b. Length of snack period	1	12			
c. Time of snack period	1	10-15			
17. Number of schools having classes on block-time	19	yes-2; no-17			
18. a. Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/ or 9	2				
b. Number of different subject- matter combinations	2				
c. Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
(a) English and social studies, 1 school					
(b) Health and P. E., 1 school					

TABLE 38—STATE-WIDE DATA ON DAILY SCHEDULE IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS, SHOWING NO. OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH ITEM AND OTHER STATISTICS

WISCONSIN

Items		Number Responding	Range	Median Mode Mean		
1.	Years in junior high school . . .	45	2-3	3	3	
2.	Enrollment	45	164-1430	498		582.3
3. a.	Number of professional staff . .	44	6-59	25		
b.	Number of schools having more men than women teachers . .	44	yes-21; no-23			
4.	Number of periods per day . .	46	5-8	6	6	6.4
5.	Length of class period (minutes)	45	44-83	52	55	
6.	Time school day begins	46	8:00-9:00		8:30	
7.	Time school day ends	46	3:00-4:45		3:30	
12.	Length of lunch periods (minutes)	46	30-90	70	75	
13.	Time for passing between classes (minutes)	45	2-5	3	3	3.1
14.	Number of schools on double or staggered session	46	no-46			
15. a.	Length of activity period	26	20-75	30	30	
b.	Number of periods per week . .	25	1-5	5	5	
c.	Time of activity period	27	8:10-3:15		1:00-3:00	
16. a.	Number of schools having a snack period	43	yes-7; no-36			
b.	Length of snack period	7	5-10	6	5	
c.	Time of snack period	7	9:45-10:25		10:00	
17.	Number of schools having classes on block-time	43	yes-26; no-17			
18. a.	Number of schools having sub- ject-matter combinations in grades 7, 8, and/or 9	29				
b.	Number of different subject- matter combinations	12				
c.	Commonest types of combina- tions in grades 7, 8, and/or 9 by rank order:					
	(a) English and social studies, 20 schools		(c) English, social studies, and science, 2 schools			
	(b) English, math, and social studies, 2 schools		(f) Music, art, physical education, and social studies, 2 schools			
	(c) English and Latin, 2 schools		(g) English and math, 1 school			
	(d) English and geography, 2 schools		(h) Social studies and math, 1 school			
			(i) Math and science, 1 school			
			(j) Others, 3 schools			

TABLE 39—MEDIAN PUPIL-TEACHER RATIOS* IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING, BY STATE, 1955-56

<i>State</i>	<i>No. of Schools Responding</i>	<i>Median Pupil- Teacher Ratio</i>
All junior high schools responding	1244	22.1
All junior high schools over 1,000 enrollment responding	338	23.8
Alabama	13	27.7
Arkansas	14	28.7
California	141	22.8
Colorado	13	25.0
Connecticut	20	19.6
District of Columbia	17	20.5
Florida	32	25.4
Idaho	7	15.9
Illinois	21	22.1
Indiana	11	22.9
Iowa	36	23.8
Kansas	26	25.6
Kentucky	7	20.3
Louisiana	9	21.0
Maine	5	22.1
Maryland	36	18.4
Massachusetts	52	23.0
Michigan	40	24.2
Minnesota	59	18.2
Mississippi	5	23.4
Missouri	18	21.0
New Jersey	41	18.2
New Mexico	8	22.6
New York	65	20.7
North Carolina	16	21.4
North Dakota	5	21.8
Ohio	51	24.5
Oklahoma	35	24.0
Oregon	26	23.5
Pennsylvania	110	24.1
Rhode Island	13	15.2
South Carolina	7	21.9
Tennessee	8	26.3
Texas	100	21.7
Utah	18	27.9
Virginia	17	17.5
Washington	48	23.3
West Virginia	22	26.9
Wisconsin	45	19.9
Wyoming	8	18.8

*Note:

(1) Column 1 omits states from which 4 or fewer junior high schools responded.
 (2) The median pupil-teacher ratio was derived by dividing questionnaire item 2 by item 3. Replies to both items are medians, therefore the resultant quotient is a general and not a specific indicant of pupil-teacher ratio for the state.

(3) Pupil-teacher ratio, as used here, includes administrative and supervisory staff. For that reason, the ratios are lower than they would be if non-teaching and less than full-time teaching personnel were not included.

The following is a reproduction of the questionnaire form that was sent to the 2,000 junior high-school principals contacted in this study.

To the Junior High School Administrator:

Please fill in this card and mail to NASSP address on other side. No stamp is needed. If your reply is in by Dec. 20, 1955, it will be included in report.

- | | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|--|--------------------------|---|---|----|
| 1. Grades in Jr. H. S. (circle) | | | | |
| 2. Enrollment (Sept. 1955) | | | | |
| 3. Number of professional staff | | | | |
| | Men | | | |
| | Women | | | |
| 4. Number of periods per day | | | | |
| 5. Length of class period (min.) | | | | |
| 6. School day begins (A.M.) | | | | |
| 7. School day ends (P.M.) | | | | |
| 8. Total hours in school day | | | | |
| 9. Number of daily home rooms | | | | |
| 10. Length of home rooms (min.) | | | | |
| 11. Time home rooms meet | | | | |
| 12. Length of lunch periods (min.) | | | | |
| 13. Passing between classes (min.) | | | | |
| 14. Is school on double shift? | | | | |
| 15. How long is your activity period? | | | | |
| | Time of day? | | | |
| | No. periods per wk. | | | |
| 16. Do you have a snack period? | | | | |
| | How long? | | | |
| | Time of day? | | | |
| 17. Are any classes on block-time? | | | | |
| Are these called Core, Unified Studies, Common Learnings, General Education, or other (CIRCLE) | | | | |
| 18. What subjects are combined? | | | | |
| 19. Send in bell schedules, and other materials if they will help clarify your answers. | | | | |

Principal's signature Date

School Address State

The Book Column

Professional Books

The American Social Hygiene Association; 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y., Publications of:

Education for Personal and Family Living, a Working Guide for Colleges. 1955. 157 pp. \$1. This is the report of a second project in education for personal and family living. It was organized to help colleges orient their prospective teachers toward more effective work in that field. It includes suggestions for using the materials and discussion of the methods the consultants used in their work. With the recognition of the need for school courses in preparation for marriage, parenthood, and other aspects of personal and family life, a crucial problem has arisen; namely, the need for selecting and training good teachers to carry on this service. This major problem of teacher training has engaged the complete attention of a committee of consultants of the Central Atlantic region, who have been asked to detail their findings in this report.

Strengthening Family Life Education in Our Schools. 1955. 197 pp. \$1. This is the report of the Midwest project for in-service preparation of elementary- and secondary-school teachers. Two former projects were concerned with teacher preparation. This resource guide to education for personal and family living is the work of many consultants representing administrative and teacher specialties in the elementary and secondary schools. The consultants sought to develop a body of information suggesting materials for personal and family life education and practical methods for their use.

The guide will be of interest to school administrators because it presents possible approaches to a subject which demands their attention and lends itself admirably to in-service education. It will appeal to them because it was developed around the idea that each school in each community requires special study leading to its own personal and family life education program and tailored to its own needs. It will be both interesting and helpful to teachers because it collects for them a great body of practical information with extensive references for further study. It asks teachers some of the questions which must be considered in developing personal and family life education programs. It invites them to create such programs and it frames a general body of content and method. It does not, however, project a blueprint.

Suggestions for Preparing Teachers in Education for Personal and Family Living. 1954. 109 pp. \$1. This report is one outcome of several months of work by those who participated, in 1954, in the first regional project (the Midwest Project) on education for personal and family living organized and supported by the American Social Hygiene Association. Although teachers in elementary as well as secondary schools may find some of these materials helpful in planning their work, another project will develop materials especially for their use. This first report is primarily for those who instruct in teacher-preparation institutions.

ANDERSON, V. E. *Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement*. New York 10: Ronald Press Company. 1956. 478 pp. \$5.50. This is a comprehensive book on curriculum improvement in school and classroom. Principles derived from research in human development and from democratic ideals are presented as guides to procedures, pointed up with illustrations from elementary, secondary, and college levels. It is a book on curriculum study carried on by teachers, pupils, administrators, supervisors, and parents to improve the experiences of pupils—for the *quality of experiences* is the key to curriculum study. Curriculum change is viewed as a change in human relationships in the school society, accelerated by effective group processes. These changes are influenced by the quality of human relations that exists between school and community.

This book seeks to assist those who want to move from a subject-centered to an experience-centered type of program in which change of behavior is the goal. It is also intended to help those who wish to apply certain principles of the experience-centered approach. To that end, it is addressed to teachers, administrators, curriculum co-ordinators, and college professors and students, who are mutually engaged in the task of curriculum improvement. Suggestions are made for co-operative school-community curriculum study, teachers and parents working as partners, and for teacher-pupil curriculum planning in the classroom. Both of these avenues of curriculum improvement are pointed toward actual school situations. The material is designed especially for courses in principles of curriculum improvement that apply to elementary, secondary, and college levels, for workshops, and for local school programs of curriculum study. Principals, supervisors, and college teachers of education should find it useful for critically evaluating with teachers the experiences provided for children and youth. The descriptions of school practices to illustrate the principles should make its useful to pre-service students of education as well.

The first part is devoted to the dynamics and processes of group study that has curriculum change as its purpose. In the second part, the factors that affect decisions regarding curriculum policy and practice are presented—the teacher's orientation, the culture and community values, democratic principles, learning principles, and human growth and development. These general principles govern the specific procedures discussed throughout the book. Three types of curriculum problems are then discussed in the remaining three parts: (1) organizing and carrying on curriculum study as a faculty, (2) organizing and planning the curriculum for a school, grades one through twelve, and (3) planning the curriculum in the classroom by teacher and pupil.

BALTIMORE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *Arithmetic in the Elementary School*. Baltimore 18: Bureau of Publications, 3 East 25th Street. 1955. 162 pp. \$1. The new Guide is another effort to translate into terms of classroom usefulness the fruits of educational research and experimentation. While the content of arithmetic is quite well known and subject to little change, the ways in which young children respond to situations involving number and quantitative relationships have not been so well known. In this complex but fascinating field, the interplay of intelligence, emotion, experience, and growth presents countless opportunities and puzzles to the teacher.

The principal contribution of this volume is its emphasis upon the importance of teaching both computation and problem solving in such a way that the child will understand and appreciate the significance of what he learns. Teaching

to this end is more difficult than supervising repetitive drills; but, when learning proceeds by reason rather than by rote, the rewards to both teacher and pupil are infinitely greater.

BECK, R. H., editor. *The Three R's Plus*. Minneapolis 14: University of Minnesota Press. 1956. 402 pp. \$5. Do the schools still teach the three R's or are they neglecting these fundamentals? Should boys and girls be made to study things that don't interest them? What's happened to the report card? Have drill and memorization a place in today's teaching methods? What are the basic ideas behind modern education? Questions like these are constantly being asked by parents and other responsible citizens in a sincere effort to learn more about what the public schools are doing and why. Such questions deserve thoughtful and thorough answers that will provide a basis for realistic understanding and constructive thinking about present-day schools. In this book, educators themselves explain, in understandable terms, the concepts, the methods, and the aims that underlie our public school teaching today.

Thirty-one experts in various aspects of education contribute chapters about their particular fields. The chapters are arranged in sections—Changed and Changing Conceptions, Subjects and Services, and Issues of Interest. The book explains modern educational philosophy and describes the methods of teaching, as applied to specific subject fields, that are based on these theories. The final section discusses such controversial problems as the financial support of the schools and the role of religion in the public schools.

Better High Schools Faster. New York 27: Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 W. 120th Street. 1955. 41 pp. Mimeo. Discusses principles basic to good group process, techniques for discovering needs and effecting change, and reports case studies. Also includes a check sheet of curriculum personnel and a glossary.

BOLES, P. D. *Glenport Illinois*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 432 pp. \$4.50. This book traces twenty years of life in a midwestern town. The reader comes to know it through the eyes of dozens of its inhabitants, in particular those of Tone Grayleaf, whose family comes to Glenport in 1929, when he is a boy of twelve. As Tone matures and his personal horizons widen, the reader shares his emotions and knowledge and becomes increasingly interested in the community. For here is a whole town brought to life, with all its failings as well as its virtues. Although Glenport changes with the passing years, its essential identity remains intact, preserved forever in the memories of those who lived there and loved it best.

BYRAM, H. M., and R. C. WENRICH. *Vocational Education and Practical Arts in the Community School*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 522 pp. \$5.50. The primary purpose of this book is to help local administrators, members of boards of education, teachers, and the people of a community (1) to increase the availability and effectiveness of those aspects of the school program designed to develop vocational competencies and (2) to enrich the general education of children, youth, and adults. It is based on the premise that effective school programs must be developed co-operatively by the people in the school and the community. The improvement of programs of vocational education and practical arts in the past frequently has been hampered by a lack of understanding of the meaning and potentialities of "community schools"; of the need for vocational education for secondary-school youth and adults; of the nature and contribution of the practical arts to general and vocational education; and of how such programs can

be built into and made an integral part of the school program for elementary- and high-school pupils and adults.

This book is intended for superintendents, principals, local directors of vocational education, and teachers. It is also addressed to school boards and members of citizens' committees in the public schools. It is especially organized to be suitable for graduate and undergraduate courses for teachers, supervisors, and administrators. The references following each chapter are selected from among the more recent significant writing in books and bulletins. The reader will find these references helpful in gaining a fuller understanding of the topics treated in each chapter.

CONANT, J. B. *The Citadel of Learning*. New Haven: Yale University Press. 1956. 89 pp. \$2. The author has had admirable preparation for writing about the state of the higher learning in the perilous mid-fifties. One of the country's foremost scientists, president for twenty years of Harvard, High Commissioner, and then Ambassador to Germany, he has known both research and teaching at close range and in two worlds.

In this book he writes on subjects about which he feels deeply: the meaning to the West of free inquiry with all its controversies; the unique American tradition of learning for all, and the immediate need for reconciling number with quality on limited budgets. This is one of the key periods when it is necessary to reconsider fundamental assumptions of American higher education: what the relations are between research and teaching; whether professors should accept outside fees from private sources; who and how many should go to college and to professional schools; to what purposes those who enter our universities are being educated.

CORNELL, F. G. *The Essentials of Educational Statistics*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1956. 387 pp. \$5.75. Written by a nationally recognized authority, this modern introduction approaches statistics from the viewpoint of the reader whose interest is in their application to problems in education. It is based upon experience not only in the teaching of educational statistics but also on wide familiarity with their use in classroom teaching, school surveys, educational evaluation, and research in local and state school systems.

The book is not limited to any single area such as measurement or psychology. Statistical methods of importance in supervising, administration, curriculum development, school finance, and instruction are all carefully considered. Emphasis is on an understanding of statistical concepts rather than the routine computational procedures involved in their use. The exposition is concise and follows modern trends, such as the early introduction of sampling and statistical inference.

The material is presented in such a way that it can be followed by the reader with a minimum of mathematical training. At the same time it is never oversimplified. There is no danger of missing any vital meanings or ideas. The mathematical basis is developed intuitively with many examples and the book provides a sound background for advanced study.

CORSON, J. J. and J. W. MC CONNELL. *Economic Needs of Older People*. New York 36: The Twentieth Century Fund. 1956. 551 pp. \$4.50. "There has been no single, comprehensive analysis of the status of the older population since 1930," say the authors of this survey, who seek to provide just such an analysis in this book. Every phase of the subject is covered. The authors assemble figures on the number of persons over 65; where they live; how many

are at work; how much and what kinds of income they have; their state of health, their family patterns, and other pertinent facts. The survey covers social security and all forms of public and private pension plans and old-age assistance. It offers a full and factual analysis of the place of older persons in our economic and social system.

A noteworthy feature of this survey is the report of the Fund's Committee on the Economic Needs of Older People, a distinguished group of experts who review the findings and set forth central principles for meeting the needs of our older citizens. Any person, in a public or private capacity, who is interested in any phase of the pressing problem of older persons in our society—or in his own future—will find this book an invaluable source of authoritative and useful information.

CREMIN, L. A., and M. L. BORROWMAN. *Public Schools in Our Democracy*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 236 pp. \$2.64. "The establishment of a republican government without well-appointed and efficient means for the universal education of the people," wrote the great Massachusetts educator Horace Mann in 1848, "is the most rash and fool-hardy experiment ever tried by man." In the century since Horace Mann lived and worked, Americans have heeded his warning well. Their answer has been what his was, the free public school, one of the most imposing educational adventures of all time, and today a characteristic feature of the American way of life.

This book is about that educational adventure. It deals with the public schools of our democracy. It tells the story of how they came to be. It discusses the many services they render and the many responsibilities they bear. Most important of all, it shows the average citizen can help the work of the public schools in his own community. In other words, it is concerned with the stake of the public in public education. Its purpose is to make citizens better informed about public education, better able to solve some of its most important problems, and better able to judge its most important results.

The book is divided into four parts. In Part One there are a series of thumbnail sketches—the social scientists call them "case studies"—of students, teachers, and citizens in a representative American community called Maplewood. While Maplewood does not actually exist, it is typical of communities throughout our nation.

The story of how our public schools came to be is told in Part Two. You will see how the public schools grew out of attempts by Americans to promote certain great values and meet certain unusual conditions of American life. Here also is the story of the tremendous progress public schools have made since they were founded over a century ago. The buildings, textbooks, courses, and teaching methods of today are a far cry from what they were in 1850 and 1900, and it is important for citizens to realize why, how, and how much they have changed.

In Part Three some principles are developed for citizens to use in deciding how well the public schools of their community are doing their job. Here the matter of paying for public schools is also taken up—a matter of great importance to the citizens who pay school taxes. In a way, this part equips citizens to judge whether they are getting proper returns from the investment they make in the public schools of their community.

Finally, Part Four turns to some of the great problems that Americans have to solve if public education is effectively to continue its work. There are many

ways for people to take an active part in the solution of these problems, and in public school affairs generally. Part Four shows how to begin.

DOBZHANSKY, THEODOSIUS. *Evolution, Genetics, and Man*. New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1955. 410 pp. \$5.50. The early chapters treat elementary genetics and provide a solid foundation for the reader's understanding of the evolutionary events dealt with in later sections. While the treatment is not historical, the history of the various evolutionary ideas is considered at the same time that the present applications of those ideas are described. Each chapter begins with a clear presentation of the problems to be considered and ends with an annotated list of suggested supplementary reading. Over 100 illustrations underscore the text material.

DOUGLASS, H. R., editor. *The High School Curriculum*, second edition. New York 10: Ronald Press Company. 1956. 590 pp. \$6. Like its predecessor, this second edition is the work of a group of recognized specialists in the various component fields. A complete revision has been made. Chapters have been added on the curriculum problems of the small high school, the core curriculum, and the large unit in the curriculum. Material appearing in the first edition which is accurate and sound today has been retained, but each chapter has been brought up to date, and in most chapters there is much new material.

The volume is intended for use as a textbook for courses on the high-school curriculum, and as a book for teachers in service who wish information and stimuli to their thinking about curriculum improvement. As a textbook, it is best fitted for seniors and graduate students in teachers colleges, colleges, and universities. While the book has been written by some twenty-eight different persons, the various chapters have been carefully co-ordinated by reading, re-writing, and rereading the manuscripts, though no effort has been made to produce a uniformity in style. At the conclusion of each chapter will be found a list of questions, problems, and exercises. Some of them should prove very useful as a stimulus and guide to teachers in service. Also, at the conclusion of each chapter there is a relatively short list of carefully selected references, with brief annotations to give some idea of what may be expected in any article or book.

DREIMAN, D. B. *How To Get Better Schools, a Tested Program*. New York 16. Harper and Brothers. 1956. 285 pp. \$3.50. With controversy mounting all over America about our schools, this book tells what to do about them. It puts into the hands of every citizen interested in his local school problems those tools which the National Citizens Commission developed and perfected out of its own experiences and the experiences of countless communities.

Under the chairmanship of Roy E. Larsen, President of Time, Inc., the National Citizens Commission became within a few years one of the most potent agencies in the country for improving public education. Sometimes the Commission was called upon to help a community solve a problem—frequently the Commission learned from what some community had already accomplished. And, from the sum of its research, the Commission evolved tested methods for functioning in all those areas of education in which the lay citizen can and should exercise a public voice in behalf of his schools.

Part I of the book cites five case histories: Corning, New York; Minneapolis, Minnesota; New Canaan, Connecticut; Houston, Texas; and Bellevue, Washington. Each of these cases shows how a concerned citizenry worked out an effective

tive method of solving a crisis in its schools—a different kind of crisis in each community.

Following a short history of the National Citizens Commission, the book discusses the Commission's findings, drawn from the original working guides that the Commission published. This handbook is what every citizen is looking for, whether he attends meetings on school problems, sits on a school board, or wonders to vote "yes" or "no" on a school bond issue.

ERICKSON, T. A. *My Sixty Years With Rural Youth*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1956. 176 pp. \$2.75. Reading this book will be like a personal visit and reminiscence for the thousands of persons, particularly in rural Minnesota and the Middle West, who have known the author affectionately as "Dad" Erickson. Mr. Erickson devoted much of his life to the 4-H club program for rural youth, serving as state 4-H leader in Minnesota for nearly 30 years. During that time, about half a million boys and girls became 4-H club members in the state and grew up to be better citizens, better farmers, and better homemakers because of "Dad" Erickson's teaching and inspiration.

Besides its warm, personal appeal, this book has another and perhaps broader significance. The story Mr. Erickson tells is, in large measure, a documentation of the development of 4-H club work. As such, it is an important chapter in the agricultural history of Minnesota and of the nation as a whole, since the 4-H movement has profoundly affected the course of agriculture in this country. One of the reasons for the founding of the organization was an alarming drift away from the farms of young people, half a century ago. Through the 4-H program, rural life was made more attractive, and farm youngsters got a more equitable share of America's cultural, social, and economic opportunities and rewards.

EYE, G. G., and LANE, W. R. *The New Teacher Comes to School*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1956. 380 pp. \$4.50. Here is a text devoted wholly to the problem of the new teacher. This matter of the induction or orientation of new teachers is one of relatively recent concern. Previous texts in school administration or school personnel have devoted no more than a chapter to the subject. This new book discusses at length the problems peculiar to new teachers, their special needs, the ways of expediting their adaptation to school and community. The authors also draw attention to individuals and groups who have responsibilities to new teachers.

At a time when the teacher shortage becomes more acute each year, and the most serious losses in teaching personnel are among those in their first years of experience, it is important that special efforts should be directed toward increasing the holding power of the profession. This book is a major contribution toward this end. It should serve as a stimulus and guide to those concerned with planning induction activities for new teachers—school administrators, PTA organizations, and school boards especially. It will also serve as a valuable text in college courses in school administration.

FRANSETH, JANE. *Supervision in Rural Schools*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1955. 50 pp. 25c. Reports the beliefs of many educators about the kind of supervision or leadership that is most effective, some practices which illustrate the principles, and some ways used to appraise the effectiveness of supervision.

GARBER, L. O., editor. *The Yearbook of School Law 1956*. Philadelphia 4: School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, 3812 Walnut Street. 1956. 132 pp. \$2.75. This is the seventh volume in the series of *Yearbooks* under the

author's editorship. It follows closely the pattern of organization that has characterized previous *Yearbooks*. It reviews those significant and important decisions of our higher courts that have implications for education which were reported during a single year—July, 1954, through June, 1955. In addition, it contains one chapter that deals, in some detail, with what are considered to be the most significant cases decided during the year. It also contains two special articles and a bibliography of recent research studies in the field. The special articles are entitled: "Judicial Control of the School Program" by M. K. Ferrier and "Legal Aspects of Field Trips and Excursion" by the editor. The annotated bibliography is by M. R. Sumption. Here is a series of *Yearbooks* with which every secondary-school administrator should be familiar.

Graduate Education for Women. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 1956. 145 pp. \$3.50. This book creates a clearer understanding, both inside and outside the academic world, of what graduate education for women means—to women, to the institutions that provide their education, and to the society that increasingly needs highly trained individuals. It is an invaluable guide for the prospective graduate student and her parents, for it tells what she will find in graduate school and afterward, and how she can combine her work with marriage and a family. It will aid instructors in advising their ablest women students, and will be read with interest and profit by college and university administrators and by those thoughtful and responsible citizens who want to understand the processes, problems, and potentialities of higher education in America.

HECHINGER, F. M. *An Adventure in Education*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 278 pp. \$3.75. The future of this country lies in the education of our citizens. What is being done in the public schools to make sure that America's nearly 40,000,000 school children, and the millions to follow them, will be ready for tomorrow's challenges?

Alert to this question, the people of Connecticut took a close look at their schools. A special Fact-Finding Commission, under the chairmanship of Norman Cousins, was appointed by the Governor. The Commission enlisted an army of volunteers. Approximately 38,000 workers collaborated in the effort. It was the largest and most thorough survey of education in a single area ever undertaken in this country. Local committees examined school buildings, equipment, finances, curricula, the caliber of teaching, and the aims and purposes of the entire educational program. What they learned went into a report to the state government.

The purpose of the Connecticut Commission was to find facts. Although their efforts in some localities were met with apathy and even with open hostility, and although the Commission uncovered inadequacies and ineptness, they also found much to praise and much that was distinctly heartening. At all times the commission aimed to discover those elements which would be guides for an educational system in which everyone could take pride.

As Mr. Hechinger makes clear, Connecticut's school problems are not merely local. Every state in the union faces similar, even identical, educational issues. American citizens own their schools. Our public schools are our responsibility. This is a book for parents, for educators, for all friends of public education everywhere who want to know how they can help to give our children the education they deserve and need.

ILG, F. L. and AMES, L. B. *Child Behavior*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1955. 376 pp. \$3.95. This is the first book from the Gesell Institute of Child Development to provide specific advice on what to do about the behavior problems of children which parents meet in everyday life. The reasons for the behavior problems and for the recommended ways of solving them are made clear by the information the book provides on how behavior changes with the child's growth in the first ten years of life.

This book tells you what to do about your child's: eating behavior, sleeping and dreams, elimination, tensional outlets, fears, walking and talking, intelligence and defeats, and sex development. What to do about: mother-child relationship, father-child relationship, relations with brothers and sisters, comics, television and movies, school, ethical sense, and discipline.

Parents who have followed the authors' syndicated column on child behavior—from which some of this material in this book has been taken—know how much help and reassurance are to be gained from its clear and easygoing correlation of fundamental problems and specific advice. Those virtues are more than ever evident in this relaxed and authoritative guide to your child's behavior and what to do about it.

Living and Learning in the Elementary Schools, Revised. Minneapolis: Public Schools. 1956. 160 pp. This publication should be a direct aid in relating and integrating school personnel's knowledge about children in the elementary school. The book contains many suggestions that will be helpful to the administration as well as the teacher. The importance of children as well as the importance of well-planned experiences for them have been fused in the philosophy of this book to encourage a balanced and continuous instructional program in the elementary schools. Children's spontaneous joy in discovering the new and their sincere interest and effort to learn the significant are challenges to all teachers in the development of individual capacities. This publication presents helpful information to meet the constant but changing demands of each school day and practical application in actual teaching-learning situations.

MILLER, SISTER MARY JANET. *Communication Arts in the Catholic Secondary School*. Washington 17, D. C.: The Catholic University of America Press. 1956. 204 pp. \$2.25. This volume is the proceedings of the Workshop on Communication Arts in the Catholic Secondary School conducted at the Catholic University of America, June 10 to 21, 1955. Opinions and desires expressed by the participants of the 1954 Workshop led to the continuation in 1955 of study of the English program in a wider and richer context, considering it as one of the three communicative arts: verbal, graphic, and musical. It was planned that participants might consider the nature of the communicative arts in general and of verbal communication in particular, observing in what ways graphic arts, the musical arts, and the verbal arts are similar, dissimilar, and ancillary to one another.

MORRIS, E. M. *The First Twenty-Five Years*. Battle Creek: W. K. Kellogg Foundation. 1956. 256 pp. June 21, 1955, was a milestone for the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. The date represented the ending of the first quarter-century of activity by this organization. Appropriately the trustees, officers, and staff paused to look at the past and to commemorate the wisdom of the founder, for, of the Foundation and W. K. Kellogg, it can truly be said that "An institution is the lengthened shadow of one man."

The chapters in this book represent more than an annual report. They are an attempt to capsule some of the more than 1,500 projects and programs which have been assisted by the Foundation since 1930. In the sense that they look back at an evolving and exploratory pattern of activity, they are history. In the light of the renewed affirmation of the belief of the founder that the wisest stewardship is "to help people to help themselves," the past is but prologue. Chapter titles are: American Community, 1930-1955, Communities in Action, Welfare of Children and Youth, Education for Leadership, Education for Service, and Retrospect and Prospect.

MOUSTAKAS, C. E. *The Teacher and the Child*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1956. 279 pp. \$4.50. This is an original, firsthand study, reported simply and directly, of personal relationships between teachers and children from kindergarten through high school. The basic premise throughout is that the development of the right kind of relationships in the classroom can make teachers more effective and children better able to realize their potentialities. Emphasis is upon understanding the child in his own terms, values, and meanings rather than in terms of external procedures of diagnosis and evaluation.

The personal interactions incorporated in the book were gathered by 92 elementary- and secondary-school teachers in four school systems who kept tape recordings and detailed notes on the developing relationships between teacher and child. In addition to exploring the basis and nature of these relationships, the book discusses successes and failures in teachers' attempts to help children discover a healthier and more satisfying way of life in the classroom. It describes experimental mental hygiene approaches devised by teachers as a way of gaining insight into the meaning of children's behavior. These mental hygiene procedures, developed by teachers themselves, are presented in such a way that they will be helpful to other teachers, present and prospective.

This book will be of value to anyone interested in human interaction and the creative potentiality existing within the essential being of individuals, and, more specifically, to teachers, child development workers, and graduate students of education or psychology.

NELSON, M. J.; DENNY, E. C.; and COLADARCI, A. P. *Statistics for Teachers*. New York 19: The Dryden Press. 1956. 190 pp. \$2.40. Whether this book is used as the basic text in terminal elementary courses or in conjunction with a standard textbook in more comprehensive programs, it is designed to help in the transition from little or no knowledge of quantitative thinking to an understanding of basic concepts and processes. The authors have attempted to present these concepts and processes as simply as possible, omitting derivations and demanding no initial algebraic competence on the part of the reader. The large number of work problems and educational illustrations is intended to provide for frequent and immediate professional application of the concepts and procedures discussed in this book and in other standard textbooks. A *Teacher's Key to Statistics for Teachers*, revised, is also available.

OLT, RUSSELL. *An Approach to the Psychology of Religion*. Boston 20: The Christopher Publishing House. 1956. 183 pp. \$3. This is a balanced treatment of the application of psychology to religion. Original and lucid style treats traditional material carefully chosen by the author to give a well-rounded coverage of the subject. The book is designed for a one-semester college course, but it is simply and clearly written so as to be understood by the layman. The author is a

professional psychologist and has been a churchman for more than a quarter of a century. The book grows out of laboratory experience with students carefully picking out subject matter with which the student ought to be familiar. In this book, the author attempts to apply the findings of modern psychology to religion by maintaining a reverent spirit toward wholesome religion.

PROCHNOW, H. V. *The Public Speaker's Treasure Chest*. New York 16: Harper & Brothers. 1942. 423 pp. \$3.95. This volume will be found useful by every man and woman who writes and delivers an occasional speech. Commencing with a brief and highly instructive section on how to prepare a speech, this book supplies nearly 4,000 quotable items to make your speech and conversation sparkle. It brings together material never before available except by reference to numerous books and anthologies. It grows out of the studious efforts of an experienced public speaker who has built this encyclopedic volume out of his note-books of tested anecdotal material, carefully assembled and sifted. Reference use of this volume is made simple, quick, and easy by its indexing method. Each of the items is numbered consecutively from 1 to 4,000. To find suitable material, one has only to turn to a complete subject index and refer to the number listed beside each subject.

ROBINSON, H. M., compiler and editor. *Oral Aspects of Reading*. Chicago 37: The University of Chicago Press. 1955. 174 pp. \$3.50. This is the proceedings of the annual conference on reading held at the University of Chicago in 1955. First of all, the conference considered the current role of oral reading, both in the school program and in adult activities. This was followed by a brief review of earlier practices and an analysis of the characteristics of effective oral reading in the present educational scene. In subsequent general sessions, attention was centered on one after another of these characteristics in an effort to determine the most effective means to promote growth in all aspects of oral reading. In addition, several general sessions were focused on the uses of oral reading as a means of communication.

ROMEIN, TUNIS. *Education and Responsibility*. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press. 1955. 224 pp. \$3.50. This book explains the basic conflicts in education by examining three educational philosophies—progressivism, educational reconstructionism, and classical humanism—and by comparing all of them with the traditional Christian view. The author holds that all educational philosophies, whether secular or not, are based on faith, and that all can be tested with regard to their beliefs about the nature of man and about the kind of moral responsibility education should develop in man. He shows the necessity as well as the difficulty of making faith in God once more the underlying influence in American education.

School Board-Superintendent Relationships. Washington 6, D. C. American Association of School Administrators. 1956. 502 pp. \$5. This 34th AASA Yearbook is largely a guided tour along the highways and byways of good public and personnel relations practices for board members and superintendents. Probably the best written, most easy-to-read yearbook ever published by AASA, it has its feet on solid ground all the way.

Most of the book deals with the No. 1 challenge which faces the board and head administrator: how to get along with people in order to get the big and little jobs accomplished. Basic principles are spelled out, illustrated with scores of anecdotes, and then spelled out again for those who may have missed the point. Early chapters tell how the administrator and board can and must work together,

in board meetings and out. From there on the book points the way of board-administrator teamwork in relations with the press, the community, and school personnel.

The chapter on press relations, incidentally, is a classic. It makes a strong case against holding closed board meetings, even "informal" sessions, any time, any place. The board needs "the protection of a completely open record" more than any other public agency, declares the book. Although closed and informal meetings usually are held with sincere intentions, the risk is too great. Of school personnel and patrons, the book says: "Mistakes they will take, stupidity they will take; the suspicion that something is being connived behind their backs they will not take." "The highly emotional reaction of the public to anything concerning schools makes it a different piece of dynamite," declares the Yearbook. "Everyone reacts to a school issues and, once indignation and suspicion are touched off, they are likely to mow down the children and the teachers as well as the board and administration."

Play it safe, urges the book. The superintendent can scarcely overdo keeping board members informed about all phases of the school operation. In turn, the board and superintendent should follow a policy of keeping the press and community fully informed *all the time*. It warns that in communities where the school enjoys a superficially favorable press—endorsing tax levies and publishing "oh-how-wonderful" features about the schools—even though there is only a semi-open policy, there can be a real blowup during a crisis.

The book is dedicated to Worth McClure because of his dynamic leadership as executive secretary of the AASA. He will retire this summer and will be succeeded by Finis Ewing Engleman, Commission of Education, Connecticut State Department of Education, who will assume his new duties about September 15, 1956. The book, in addition to the dedication and a foreword, is composed of thirteen chapters, and appendix, a list of recent AASA Yearbooks, and official records, including a listing of the officers and the members of the Association.

SMITH, H. L., JR. *Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 1956. 66 pp. \$1.50. This is the 1954 Inglis lecture in secondary education. In it, the author explores specific ways in which linguistics can help educators in the extremely important job they have in developing persons to function effectively in the world of today.

TROTIER, A. H., and MARIAN HARMAN, editors. *Doctoral Dissertations*. New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company. 1956. 215 pp. \$8. This twenty-second annual contains a total of 8,812 theses accepted by American universities during the past college year 1954-55. This is the first time since the end of World War II that the number of dissertations has shown a decrease. The total for 1953-1954 was exactly 9,000. The dissertations are arranged in alphabetical order by author, by institutions in which the dissertation was prepared. They are classified under seven headings. Philosophy has 100 listings; Religion, 138; Physical Sciences, 2,397; Earth Sciences, 232; Bibliographical Sciences, 2,480; Social Sciences, 2,657; and Humanities, 808. Included also is an index of the writers.

VANNIER, MARYHELEN. *Methods and Materials in Recreation Leadership*. Philadelphia 5: W. B. Saunders Company. 1956. 288 pp. \$4.25. This book represents a philosophy of recreation and its importance in modern life. It is basically a source book of recreational activities and how to direct them in schools, centers, churches, industrial plants, hospitals, camps, playgrounds, and

other places wherever people meet for recreational purposes. It has been written mainly for four groups—college students majoring in recreation or its allied fields, full-time recreation workers, part-time volunteer leaders, and those seeking play materials to share with their own families or friends.

The need for a book that combines theory with carefully selected materials has long been felt. More people have more free time now than ever before in the history of the world. They are searching for adventurous, challenging, pleasurable, and meaningful things to do. Their need for expert leadership is imperative. Play must be directed if worthy goals are to be reached. Trained leadership is the key to the unsolved problem of what to do with the abundant free time now available to all Americans.

WITTICH, W. A., and G. L. HANSON, editors. *Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts, and Transcriptions*, second edition. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service. 1956. 161 pp. \$5.75. This second edition is completely revised. Of the 258 listings, 153 are new in this edition. The number of sources providing these vibrant teaching aids has increased more than 70 per cent in this edition. These two facts bring into sharp relief the pressing demand for, and the tempo in the development of, these relatively newer types of educational materials. The edition is completely new. Every annotation has been rechecked. Every item listed has been reviewed on availability, nature, and content of listings, distribution conditions, and education value.

Alert administrators are searching endlessly for effective aids to learning. Today's teachers are constantly acquiring more skill in the use of films, slide-films, tapes, scripts, transcriptions, and similar audio and visual enrichment materials. Librarians are meeting the challenge to supply new materials. Producers and distributors of free curriculum and library materials recognize the growing demand for more and better items.

This *Guide* lists 58 free tapes, 181 free scripts, and 19 free transcriptions, a total of 258 free audio aids and scripts. It brings to the boys and girls of our nation rich experiences not otherwise available. Additionally, it brings to the alert educator, audio-visual director, and librarian information and suggestions on the purposes, nature, and uses of tapes, scripts, and transcriptions not to be found in any other single source.

Reprints of the articles, "The Development of Audio Tools for Teaching" and "Bringing Socially Useful Audio Experiences into Your Classroom," by Dr. Walter A. Wittich, will be furnished free to educators and librarians who ask for them.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ALLEN, M. P. *East of Astoria*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 254 pp. \$3. Because he is especially good at handling men, because he is brave and experienced in the fur country ways, young Rob Stuart is thrown into many adventures and asks for the chance to engage in more. He has joined the newly formed Astor Company. After an adventurous voyage, they reach the Oregon coast and set up their trading post. It is only when he remembers an interview with Jefferson that the dashing young Scotsman understands what they may be doing for the little new United States that seems so far away. The arrival of the powerful English Northwest Fur Company, their tricky dealings with the local Indians, points it up. More fur posts for the Astor Company spring up inland, but, in spite of Astor's careful planning, troubles do arise. Rob is trusted

to lead a party back across the continent. He worries as he never would have in the past at the disloyalty of some of the Astor partners. After hardships that broke some and tried them all, he and his men reach the East. A mystery that has plagued him from the time he joined the Astor Company is solved when a truly brave Englishman offers him a great position. Rob refuses. He finds that he is an American first. The wilderness has shown him where he stands.

ANGLE, P. M., and E. S. MIERS, editors. *The Living Lincoln*. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press. 1955. 683 pp. \$6.95. Here, in effect, is Abraham Lincoln's autobiography—from the threshold of his career to the day before his death. This book is based on the famous nine-volume set of *The Collected Works of Abraham Lincoln*, a work which has been called the cornerstone of any library of American history. From it the editors have selected Lincoln's own writing about himself and the tremendous issues of his time. With skillful editing, the letters, speeches, and documents are fused into an intimate self-portrait.

ARNOLD, ELLIOTT. *White Falcon*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf. 1955. 252 pp. \$3. In the wild frontier of Kentucky, in the late 1770's, Indians kidnapped a young boy, John Tanner, from his log cabin home, and carried him miles away to the north where he was adopted by the Ottawas. John became a true Indian—strong, fleet, brave, and wise in the ways of nature's great outdoors. Several years later when Netnokwa, aging queen of the Ottawas, decided to return to her native Chippewa tribe, it was the youth, John, who was chosen to guide her on the long journey. Among the Chippewas, John found both trouble and glory.

Readers will find adventure and excitement on every page of this book as they follow the young man's rigorous training, the tests of strength and courage he must undergo, and the intrigue and treachery he must endure from his greatest rival, the old chief's son. After a great battle with the Sioux, arch enemies of the Chippewas, John is acclaimed as the White Falcon. He marries the lovely Indian maiden, Red Sky of Morning, gains fame as a great trapper, and becomes deeply involved in the struggle between the North West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company for control of the fur trade.

BARNE, KITTY. *Rosina Copper*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 192 pp. \$2.75. Thirteen year old Angela is with her friend Mrs. Gibson, when Meg impulsively buys a derelict nag, who has aroused her interest and pity. Careful grooming brings out the mare's unusual coloring and they decide to call her copper. As they nurse her back to health, they become intrigued by her personality and the difficulty they encounter in trying to train her.

What has been this horse's previous training? How old can she be? How does she happen to have been so neglected? These questions plague Meg and Angela. Bit by bit the young girl and the able horsewoman piece together the story of Rosina Copper's life.

Even if this story were fiction, it would be a fascinating mystery. But Rosina Copper's story is fact and as such it is compelling and intriguing. From the time she was presumed to have been destroyed in 1927, after an injury during an international polo match at Meadowbrook, to her producing a foal twenty years later and going on to triumphs in jumping in 1951, Rosina Copper's story is an utterly amazing one.

BARTLETT, JOHN. *Bartlett's Familiar Quotations*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Company. 1955. 1,648 pp. \$10. For a hundred years Bartlett's *Familiar Quotations* has been one of the most treasured books in American life, comparable to the dictionary as a household necessity. As the classic reference book for "what oft was thought, but ne'er so well expressed," it has been unsurpassed in its field, "convenient, indispensable, and altogether admirable," to quote Oliver Wendell Holmes.

But its supremacy as a reference work is only one reason for Bartlett's century of popularity. Equally important is the sheer reading pleasure it has given so many hundreds of thousands of people, for here is the essence of all that is enduring in the language we speak and the literature we read. As Henry Seidel Canby has said: "I don't know any better reading than this book—which doesn't mean it isn't an excellent reference volume also. But so few reference volumes are human."

When the First Edition of *Familiar Quotations* appeared in 1855, it was a small, thin volume of 258 pages set in a single column, with an index which ran to 36 pages. The present edition contains 1,068 pages of quotations set in double column and the index has nearly 113,500 entries. As the preface to the Thirtieth and Centennial Edition states, this anniversary volume has been completely revised and edited by the editorial staff of the publishing house whose name has been connected with Bartlett's for the past ninety-two years.

BIALK, ELISA. *Marty on the Campus*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1956. 223 pp. \$2.50. To step out of a newspaper office into a college classroom meant a big change for pert, redheaded, eighteen-year-old Marty Warren. Her year's working experience as a reporter for the *Express* had, she thought, given her ideas more grown-up than those of her fellow freshmen at Northwestern University. Perhaps she wouldn't fit in at all!

Still, Marty was glad to be a part of the University and especially proud to be a student in the renowned Medill School of Journalism. Her instructors stimulated her thinking, and her sorority provided her with new friendships. And of course she continued to write—for the *Daily Northwestern*, the *Express*, even some short stories which she hoped might have enough merit for the college literary magazine. Her busy campus life still lacked something. What she missed was a boy who thought she was special, until Brad Lane, sophisticated, intellectual, handsome, claimed Marty's heart. Despite the friendly warnings of others, she let him govern everything she did. Brad's way had to be her way. At last Marty realized that above all she needed to be herself, even if it meant giving up Brad. From this, a wiser Marty emerged.

BLAIR, CLAY, JR. *Beyond Courage*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, Inc., 101 Fifth Ave. 1956. 190 pp. 35c. True tales of U. S. airmen shot down over Korea—and how they escaped.

BLANKFORT, MICHAEL. *The Strong Hand*. Boston 6: Little, Brown, and Company. 1956. 326 pp. \$3.75. Written against the colorful background of Hollywood, the Philippines, San Francisco, and New York, this is the extraordinary story of Leo Berdick and the beautiful and talented Katy Waterman—and of what happened to frustrate the fulfillment of their love when it came in conflict with an eternal faith.

BOTKIN, B. A., editor. *A Treasury of Mississippi River Folklore*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1955. 640 pp. \$5. Here, with all the warmth of personal experience and flavor of old times, are the flowing movement, humor,

and color of life "on the river." Here in one book you have the best of a hundred and fifty years of river lore and stories, short and painted or tall and rip-roaring—spell binders, rib-ticklers, eye-openers—touched with romance and nostalgia, rich in epic and drama. There are thrilling, colorful stories of historic voyages and crossings, steamboat races and disasters, floods, engineering and pilot feats. There are yarns, jests and tall tales of low water and high water, cutoffs and chutes, shifting channels, and towns that moved.

Here is the whole Mississippi panorama from the keelboat and steamboat ages to the last surviving showboats and such veteran troupers and riverboat jazzmen as Captain Billy Menke and "Satchmo" Louis Armstrong. And for singing, there are the words and music of old river songs—blues, love songs, levee hollers, lumberjack ballads, minstrel songs, voyageur songs, sounding calls, etc.

BOYKIN, EDWARD. *Congress and the Civil War*. New York 16: The McBride Company. 1955. 352 pp. \$5. Here is presented the dramatic scene-by-scene story of the forty-year parliamentary battle on Capitol Hill which culminated in the tragic gunfire of the war between the states. These fiery debates between the North and South began in 1819 with the bitter struggle over the admission of Missouri to the Union. For the next four decades, the floors of the Senate and House of Representatives were rocked by hot, forensic tempests.

Out of this long-drawn-out-drama and the personalities who played its leading roles, the author has woven an absorbing story full of the color of that era. He has drawn liberally on the almost inexhaustible treasure-house of the annals of Congress. In his swiftly flowing narration, he keeps the reader abreast of the march of events in the nation during these decades and the momentous issues facing an expanding nation.

Illustrious actors in the political arena stride through these pages: Daniel Webster debating with Robert Hayne, the Achilles of the South, on the nature of the Union; John C. Calhoun who literally died on the Senate floor fighting the battles of his beloved South; Henry Clay, master orator and politician; political wizard Martin Van Buren; aristocratic and eloquent Jefferson Davis; silver-tongued Ned Baker; vengeful, misshapen Thaddeus Stevens who personally forced Congress to impeach a president. Illuminating the text are many sidelights of little-known events, filled with the drama of the period.

BRANDON, EVAN. *Green Pond*. New York 17: The Vanguard Press. 1955. 506 pp. \$4.75. This is the sweeping, intense drama of a Carolina town through the quickening years from the Civil War to the present. It is the swift and intimate story of two doctors, father and son—Old Doc Thornwell holding the threads of life in strong but uncertain fingers; young Viv Thornwell, crossing the frontier into modern medicine, battling to give it roots in hostile soil. *Green Pond*, too, is the story of Mama Amazon, born in slavery, yet so soaring and free, so knowing in spirit that she is the fountainhead of love, of solace, and of wisdom to those fortunates who fall within her great embrace.

Here are but a few of the compelling people who live in *Green Pond*—Old Doc and Victor Thornwell; Mama Amazon; the Inchurches, born to power and jealous of it; John Mathis, who begged for gentleness but was granted violence; Cora Mathis, his wife, whose whiplash well matched her driving ambition; Jezebel Mathis, their daughter, the undeniable hand-maiden of passion, who inherited beauty and something far more dangerous from her mother; Jacob Thornwell, the minister, who hoped for a heaven always just beyond his reach; Myra, his

lovely wife, who forgot how to hope; Naomi, mistress of Catawba, who could walk its paths but never touch its earth.

BROOKS, V. W. *Helen Keller, Sketch for a Portrait*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 172 pp. \$3. An illuminating portrait of the deaf-blind woman whose triumph over her disabilities has made her life an inspiration to the entire world for three-quarters of a century. It is not so much a biography (though the main incidents of her life are here) as an appreciation of the mental and spiritual qualities of Helen Keller which the author has discovered through 20 years of personal friendship and a close study of her life and writings.

As almost everyone knows, Helen Keller was released from the prison of her physical handicap by Anne Sullivan ("Teacher," as her famous pupils called her), the extraordinary young woman who first brought the rebellious 7-year-old into meaningful contact with the world around her. By the time she was 12, Helen was a celebrity; the friend of such notables as Alexander Graham Bell, Phillips Brooks, Mark Twain; the object of affectionate interest of crowned heads and presidents; the "marvel" of Boston. She has kept this position of eminence throughout her life with the help of the devoted companionship of Anne Sullivan and later Polly Thompson.

BROWN, H. E. *This Is the Way To Study*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1955. 117 pp. The object of this book is to aid this hopeful development by bringing together in simple and understandable form the results of research which have been shown to produce results. Both the mechanical and the psychological aspects of efficient study have been included. At the same time, every effort has been made to avoid the deadly monotony which can accompany a listless recital of the factors known to improve the quality of study. Learning to learn, like learning the facts of geography or the processes of mathematics, loses nothing through presentation in stimulating, interesting, and pleasant form. To this purpose, this discussion has been saturated with examples from normal daily experiences of the average pupil, chosen with the intent that they represent some area of his natural interest.

Finally, the all-important matter of motivation has been kept constantly in mind during the preparation of this material. Learning is one thing, and desiring to learn is another, though they are seldom long separated. The teacher who is honestly concerned with making better students of his pupils would do well to budget a considerable part of his allotment of time for whetting desire and igniting interest, rather than spending the whole of it in seeking to form the necessary habits in neutral or disinterested subjects.

BROWN, M. H., and W. R. FELTON. *The Frontier Years*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 272 pp. (8¼" x 11") \$10. Before the railroad came, in the time just after the last war with the Sioux, L. A. Huffman came to Fort Keogh as post photographer. He set up a studio in Miles City. He went into forbidden reservations among the Indians. He trekked through Montana territory, went on hunting expeditions for the bear, the buffalo, and the buck. He ranched to make ends meet. He explored deep into Yellowstone country, made pictures there of sights no white man had seen before. Famous warriors and scouts loafed in his studio and told stories of the days of Sitting Bull, Joseph, and Dull Knife, and Little Wolf.

He learned the soldier's life, the life of the Indian, the economics of the buffalo slaughter, the wolfer's job. He photographed the Indian, the animal-

hunter and the manhunter, the racks of bones on the field where Custer stood, wagon tracks, tree burials, skinning the buffalo, cabin interiors, the winter, hostile Sioux villages, General Phil Sheridan, Calamity Jane, the roundup, the river in flood, the freighters hauling into town, the plains. Always people were his favorites: he caught them well and saved them for another day. And his pictures wanted background, so he kept letters, diaries, and notes of every description. His sketches have an intimacy and grass-roots authority, and they are equal in value, now, to the photographs they describe.

From 1,200 negatives, the authors have culled 125 pictures—that Huffman called the best of his “gathering.” From 600 volumes of choice Western Americana, from many years of devoted study and the tales of many old-timers, they have distilled a text which does full justice to Huffman’s magnificent photographs, which complements and embraces the superb notes Huffman left with his photographs.

BROWNSTEIN, S. C.; MITCHELL WEINER; and STANLEY KAPLAN. *You Can Win a Scholarship*. Great Neck, N. Y.: Barron’s Educational Series, Inc. 1956. 448 pp. (8½ x 11.) Illustrations, diagrams, maps, bibliographies. \$2.98 paper; \$4.95 cloth. 40% trade discount. Every year thousands of dollars in scholarships go begging for want of proper applicants. And every year worthy students are denied the privilege of a college education because of their inability to afford it—or else parents feel compelled to make extreme sacrifices to pay for their children’s tuition.

During the many years of counseling high-school students in connection with preparation for college, the authors of this volume were made aware of this fact. Gradually they began to explore the channels of opportunity which scholarships make available. In the process of inquiring about the rather obvious sources, such as endowments held by colleges, they began to encounter all sorts of unexpected and little-known funds devoted to the assistance of college students.

This discovery led to the idea of gathering all pertinent scholarship data and organizing it into a booklet to aid the many bewildered parents and youth who are sincerely interested in higher education, but wonder how college expenses can be met. Beginning with the plan of writing a modest pamphlet, the authors soon found that publication of the results of their researches would take up considerably more space than they had anticipated. It was finally determined to synthesize all the available material and incorporate it in a volume which, without being cumbersome in size and prohibitive in price, should, nevertheless, attempt to be as encyclopedic as possible in scope. The result, in short, was this book.

For ready reference, the information which was so compiled is organized in three distinct sections. Part I is designed to give the available sources of scholarships. Individual chapters deal with financial aid provided by the Federal government, the various states, the individual colleges, business and industrial concerns, labor organizations, and benevolent societies. Part II presents methods and materials to insure effective preparation for scholarship examinations. This specific kind of guidance has been drawn from the author’s long experience in successfully preparing pupils for such examinations. The answers to the drill questions incorporated in this section have been carefully verified by subject matter experts. Part III gives the questions and answers to three complete New York State Scholarship examinations. These tests and the

questions from four other series (included as drill material in Part II) represent all previous New York scholarship tests made available to the public.

BURGOYNE, L. E. *Ensign Ronan*. Philadelphia 7: The John C. Winston Company. 1955. 192 pp. \$2.50. Ensign Ronan took up his duties at Fort Dearborn in 1811 with one thought in mind: to kill Indians! It was no more than right, thought the strapping eighteen-year-old six-footer, that the red men should be made to pay—and pay in blood—for the massacre of his young brother. Ronan's attitude, his commanding officer immediately realized, could easily ruin earlier efforts to make the Indian tribes allies of the young American Republic. And the struggling United States needed the red man's friendship badly at a time when war with Great Britain was imminent.

The author brings these tense and troubled days alive in this supremely exciting tale. His picture of life in and around the stockade that sheltered the soldiers, traders, trappers, and Indians who thronged the spot where Chicago now stands vibrates with color and suspense. You will meet the bluff, hearty American trader, John Kinzie; the proud chief of the Potawatomes, Black Partridge; the quiet secretive French interpreter, LaLime; and Mary Caldwell, the stunningly beautiful girl, part Irish, part Indian, whose twinkling eyes and quiet grace captivated Ronan.

BURLINGAME, ROGER. *Henry Ford*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc. 1956. 144 pp. 25c. The first full-length story of the life of Henry Ford based on the private life and official documents of the Ford Motor Company archives. A Signet Key Book.

CADWALLADER, SYLVANUS. *Three Years with Grant*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf. 1955. 377 pp. \$4.75. As a portrait of Grant, the personality and the military leader, as a civilian's picture of how the war was fought at the command level, and, above all, as a hitherto unknown primary source of Civil War history, this is an important book. It is also an extremely entertaining one that makes exciting reading. Entertaining because Cadwallader was a shrewd and stubborn man who was remarkably frank about his contemporaries and who was continually in trouble with all authority except Grant himself; exciting because he was a superb reporter in a unique position. Cadwallader had privileges and information accessible to no other journalist. Through his eyes—and, indirectly, Grant's—the reader experiences the Vicksburg and Chattanooga campaigns; the actions of the Army of the Potomac; Grant and Lincoln at City Point; Grant and Sherman hatching strategy; Grant and Lee at Appomattox.

The manuscript of *Three Years with Grant*, never published, was acquired some years ago by the Illinois State Historical Library; probably not more than a half-dozen living persons have read it. Now it has been ably edited, with an introduction and extensive notes, by Benjamin P. Thomas, whose *Abraham Lincoln* is generally regarded as the best one-volume life of the President yet written.

CALDWELL, TAYLOR. *Tender Victory*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1956. 431 pp. \$3.95. This is the story of a courageous man and the impact of his triumphant faith upon a dying town. It is a gray day when Johnny Fletcher arrives in Barryfield to take up his new ministry after the war. The mining and industrial community is covered with a heavy pall of smoke and smog which seems to indicate its defeated spirit. Its people do not take kindly to this good-humored and resourceful man of God, whose Christianity infuses every act and word. But his uncompromising faith which disturbs

their complacency is not the only unsettling thing about Johnny; there is also his "family," a group of five orphaned refugee children whom he adopted while an Army chaplain in Europe in the hope of winning them back to a meaningful life by understanding and love. They range in age from Emilie, five, to Kathy, thirteen; in between are the three boys, Max, Jean, and Pietro. These are strange children, robbed of their innocence by the brutalities of war, and bearing in their hearts the scars of that conflict—a fear and mistrust of all but each other. With kindness and patience, Johnny gradually rebuilds security for his shattered brood. He also wins the confidence of a few of Barryfield's inhabitants: the Catholic priest, the Jewish rabbi, and bluff and embittered Dr. McManus.

CAMPBELL, PATRICIA. *The Royal Anne Tree*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 252 pp. \$3.50. The rugged timber country around Puget Sound is the scene of Patricia Campbell's new novel. The author has already proved in *By Sun and Candlelight* that she is thoroughly at home in the Pacific Northwest—not only by her feeling for its scenic riches, but also in the spirited personalities, white men and Indians, who enriched its past. Here is a regional novelist in the best tradition—a writer who evokes a unique local flavor and who has the art to fashion a dramatic story about real people and the tense conflicts in their lives.

In this book the author takes us back to the stirring years immediately before the Civil War when the Washington Territory was a vast forest still untamed by settlers from the East. Louise Vane is an unforgettable heroine: a sensitive young woman of innate strength and dignity who at the age of fifteen finds herself alone in the village of Olympia, orphaned by the death of her parents.

In her loneliness Louise accepts Herman's offer of marriage, believing that life with this prosperous, hard working farmer will give her, if not love, at least security and hope. Little does she realize that the man she has married wants not a wife, but a slave. This is the pulsing story of Louise's ill-fated marriage—of her battle with the bleak solitude and toil on a wilderness farm, and even more, of her struggle against her husband's arrogance, brutality, and greed.

Fear was the child of Louise's marriage with Herman. Fear of him inspired her revolt, and opened her eyes to the love offered by a courageous young lumberman of Indian blood. Fear of him finally drove her to the savage act which ended his tyranny.

CANDEE, M. D., editor. *Current Biography*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Company. 1956. 714 pp. \$6. This new *Yearbook* for 1955 with portraits and frank, objective life stories of 350 celebrities who hit the headlines in 1955 has recently come off the press. A careful reader of this sixteenth annual cumulation has a unique opportunity to judge and appraise the makers of today's news. For example, among the 350 celebrities covered are ninety on the international scene including 7 prime ministers, 2 kings, 3 queens, 4 presidents, and 10 winners of the Nobel Prize. The critically important diplomatic conferences at Geneva and San Francisco during the past year are reflected by the presence of 7 foreign ministers and 12 ambassadors. From the U. S. Government, the editors have selected 11 Senators, 10 Representatives, U. S. Supreme Court Associate Justice John Marshall Harlan, Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell, Deputy Secretary of Defense Reuben B. Robertson, Jr., and Secretary of the Air Force Donald A. Quarles. Ten of the sketches deal with governors and 65 with women in the news. The occupations represented add up to more than 40,

the predominant ones being: theatre, business, government, education, and literature.

Biographies are prepared by world-wide research correspondents from numerous reference sources such as periodicals, newspapers, books, and international and educational organizations. The result is biographical and bibliographical information often unattainable elsewhere. A special feature is the "Classification by Profession" which groups all 355 biographees according to occupation.

CARR, ALBERT. *Men of Power*, New Revised Edition. New York 17: Viking Press, Inc. 1956. 298 pp. \$3. The author one day found a young nephew of his trying to learn about dictators by reading his uncle's *Juggernaut, the Path of Dictatorship*. The nephew was interested in the men, but found all the talk about politics rather hard going. The author decided then and there to write a book specially for him, and the result was *Men of Power*. Here are some of the most exciting chapters of history—the stories of how Richelieu, Cromwell, Frederick, Napoleon, Bolívar, Mussolini, Stalin, Hitler, Perón, Franco, and Mao Tse-tung got their power. Reading their stories makes it at once apparent that there is a pattern to dictatorship—that Hitler, for instance, used methods which Napoleon learned from Richelieu.

CARRINGTON, E. E. *The Life of Rudyard Kipling*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company. 1955. 457 pp. \$5.50. In 1889, a young man left India for England, carrying a sheaf of bulky papers under one arm. One year later, Kipling had more than eighty of his stories and ballads published, and this writer of sparkling talent emerged almost overnight into a full-blown literary success. The author has touched the core of Rudyard Kipling and brought his subject to life with true biographer's skill, delving into every facet of Kipling's life and career—his marriage, his terrible and tragic illness, his close friendship with Thomas Hardy, his mature life, and celebrity.

One of the unusually interesting portions of this book is devoted to his life in America, where he was feted in Washington by Teddy Roosevelt and Grover Cleveland. In Brattleboro, Vermont, where he wrote some of his greatest stories and novels, his quarrel with his drunken, malicious brother-in-law, Beatty Balestier, was the turning point in a once-happy life. The blasting of his privacy, and his acute embarrassment after he had Balestier arrested, drove him from America.

CERAM, C. W. *The Secret of the Hittites*. New York 22: Alfred A Knopf. 1955. 314 pp. \$5. This book is a continuation of the panorama of the most ancient world presented in *Gods, Graves, and Scholars*. Since Mr. Ceram wrote that famous book, a new, thrilling, romantic, and highly significant discovery has been made. The darkest archaeological riddle of the Orient has been virtually solved—and this with dramatic suddenness in the past few years. Although some mysterious ruins in central Turkey had been noticed in 1834, no one for a long time ascribed them to the Hittites—a people given just a few lines in the Bible and dismissed as a minor Syrian tribe. Only in 1880 did a hero of archaeology advance the reckless theory that there once had been a mighty Hittite Empire stretching from the Black Sea to Damascus. Only around 1910 did we gain our first faint knowledge of its history. Only since 1946 has there been hope of reading the fabulous Hittite hieroglyphic inscriptions. And only in the last few years has anyone done so.

Now, twenty centuries after Christ, we know that twenty centuries before Christ the Indo-European Hittites descended into Asia Minor. Now we can set

a third great empire beside the Babylon of Hammurabi and the Egypt of Ramses II. Now we can read the first fragments of a great unknown literature, of which Mr. Ceram presents stirring excerpts. Now we know the truth about Nadesh, one of the few battles that really shaped world history. Now we know the true story of the first great political treaty in the history of mankind, between the Hittites and Egypt.

But, even more important than any of these glamorous details, we can now crosscheck and synchronize the histories of Babylon and Egypt, and greatly enlarge our knowledge of the entire ancient world. Archaeology once more is achieving new and exciting vistas of man's most distant past, and of the uttermost origins of our civilization.

CHASE, M. E. *Life and Language in the Old Testament*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Company. 1955. 201 pp. \$3. As the author has shown in her books, *The Bible and The Common Reader*, she has the gift of kindling in others the fire of her own enthusiasms. In her new book, a kind of companion to her book on the Bible, she writes about the ancient Hebrews, the story tellers and the poets, so persuasively and engagingly that we see the Old Testament afresh. We find in it treasures hitherto unseen or only dimly realized. In line after line, passage after passage, words ring with new meaning as she shows the gifts possessed by the Hebrews which no other people have ever possessed in like measure: the gift of seeing and the gift of loving. These gifts were the source of their unique imaginative powers. Nothing escaped their eyes and everything revealed itself to them in terms of imagery.

CHURCHILL, WINSTON S. *A History of the English Speaking People—The Birth of Britain*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1956. 543 pp. \$6. Here is one of the great books of our age, Winston Churchill's most ambitious work and the crowning achievement of his career. His theme is a noble one, worthy of the great purpose and imaginative scope of its author. Back in the mists of time on that little Anglo-Saxon island there was kindled the flame of freedom and equality for the individual. This idea grew and was spread over the earth by the English-speaking peoples, and has now brought democracy to the whole free world, and become the shining hope of the future of mankind.

He tells of the struggles and setbacks of the great men and the little men who carried the banner forward and the selfish men who dragged it back. But there is no mistaking the drive of the swelling tide. This is naturally a British history, but it is also very much an American, Canadian, New Zealand, Australian, Indian, South African history, the greatest story of our centuries told by the master story-teller of our time.

The first volume, "The Birth of Britain," begins with the invasion by Romans, Danes, and Normans and the story of the leadership of Alfred the Great, and continues through the wars of the Roses. Great figures and events crowd its pages: William the Norman; Richard Coeur de Lion, Joan of Arc, The Black Prince, Magna Carta, Agincourt, the Black Death, etc. It concludes with the founding of the Tudor dynasty in 1485 on the eve of the discovery of the new World.

Volume Two, provisionally entitled *Liberty and Sovereignty*, will carry on the story, including the discovery and colonization of America, until the Revolution of 1688, the establishment of William and Mary on the throne and the beginning of world power.

Volume Three, provisionally entitled *Advance to Power*, increases in scope—the growth of Britain as an international power in India and the southern hemisphere, the loss of the American colonies, and, finally, the rise of Napoleon and the Battle of Waterloo.

Volume Four, provisionally entitled *The World Republic*, brings the action up to the turn of the century and the death of Queen Victoria. A considerable section of this volume is the story of British-American relations, including a superb account of the American Civil War.

COLLIER, RICHARD. *Captain of the Queens*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 313 pp. \$4.50. The richly entertaining story of a 50-year career on the high seas—a career which began in the sunset days of sailing ships, saw the development of great ocean liners, was shadowed by tragedy and danger in both World Wars, and culminated in the proudest post in the British Merchant Marine.

There is hardly a Cunard liner that Captain Grattidge has not served on—from the *Laconia*, the old *Mauretania*, and the *Berengaria* to the two great *Queens*. And there is hardly an eminent world traveler about whom he does not have fascinating stories—the Duchess of Windsor, Field Marshal Montgomery, Ezio Pinza, Bernard Baruch, Bing Crosby, Gertrude Lawrence, H. G. Wells, Lord Mountbatten, Lawrence of Arabia, and Emir Feisal, Bob Hope, and scores of others.

Renowned figures move familiarly through these pages, often in unfamiliar poses. There was the affair of the Russian cigars and Churchills large minded disregard of British customs regulations. There was the episode of Lana Turner's hairdo which the Captain impishly asked her to change in the middle of an evening as a joke on passengers who were slavishly imitating her. There was the astonishing moment when Captain Grattidge heard the strains of a band playing on a supposedly empty ship and discovered that the leader was the then Prince of Wales, later Edward VIII.

Here, too, are moments of high drama—as in the terrible disaster of the sinking of the *Lancastria* off St. Nazaire with nearly 6,000 aboard and more than 2,500 soldiers lost. Or the time during World War I when Captain Grattidge's torpedoed ship tilted so that he could see the moon through a hole in her side. Or the tense meeting between Eden and Molotov on board the *Franconia*, temporary headquarters for the British delegation during the Yalta Conference.

COOPER, PAGE. *Silver Spurs to Monterey*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1956. 217 pp. \$2.75. Young Tom Larkin, first American born in California, wanted most of all to have a horse of his own. Not a plodder like his father's, but one with dash. Such a horse was the General, a spirited and dangerous buckskin that had to be gentled if Tom was going to be allowed to keep him. It was unthinkable for the son of the American consul in Monterey to own a horse with a reputation of being a killer. Yet Tom was determined to have him, and with the help of his friends, Carlos and Black Eagle, he learned to manage the horse—to a degree.

Into Monterey, center of bustling activity in the 1840's when California briefly held its independence, came Spanish aristocrats and such famous explorers as Major John Fremont and Kit Carson. The General's fame reached even their ears, and Tom swelled with their praise. More than ever, he wanted only the best for his buckskin, and he longed to earn a jingling pair of Spanish silver spurs. Glory for Tom and his horse was waiting, too, in the hills and

valleys of the Far West where they shared with Fremont and Carson the excitement of danger and adventure.

CRAVEN, THOMAS. *The Rainbow Book of Art*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1956. 256 pp. (8" x 11"). \$4.95. In the pages of this book, with its hundreds of pictures—in color and in black-and-white—is the history of the art of the world. It starts with primitive man drawing on the walls of his caves, pictures of the animals he hunted, and ranges through the arts of painting and sculpture in Egypt and Greece and Rome. It tells of the great artists of all countries who followed these men of old—and tells, too, of the artists of yesterday and today. They and their works are here, and Thomas Craven writes of them in a way which makes you share his excitement in the wonders they have wrought.

He speaks with humor, charm, and enthusiasm, as well as with the authority that a life-time of study of these artists and their works gives to his words. When you put this book down you will look at painting and sculpture—and even at the architecture of the houses about you—with a new eye. This book has been prepared especially as an introduction not only to knowledge about our art heritage, but also to the lifelong interest and entertainment it offers. For art lovers of any age who cannot visit the famous collections, it is a museum tour in itself, guided by a man who brings a full appreciation of the artists and their works to his audience. For those who hope some day to visit the great collections of the world, this is a wonderful preparation. For any reader it is a book to be treasured and read and enjoyed many times over.

CUNNINGHAM, JOHN. *Warhorses*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 384 pp. \$3.75. The time is 1882 and the scene ranges boldly over the face of the Old West from San Antonio north to Warhorse, Montana. The days of the great American cattle boom were rough and exciting, and Cunningham evokes them with wonderful authenticity: the bawling, milking herds; the vast prairies; the sharp financial practices; the traditions of the Old West striving to resist the encroachments of the new. But *Warhorses* is primarily Buford Allen's story: tough, wily, incorrigible old Buford Allen, whose double-or-nothing gamble with fate is prompted by fierce passions, paradoxically tempered by the tenderest sentiments of love. Across the dust-choked prairies and through the wide-open towns, Buford pursues his impossible dreams, clashing with the law, careless of life and honor alike, stubbornly battling his enemies—all but the unseen enemy within himself.

DARINGER, H. F. *The Golden Thorn*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 189 pp. \$2.75. The night that Mark, a young shepherd on the Judean hills, came in great excitement to tell Mary and her family of the brilliant new star which appeared in the sky was a momentous one which brought many changes in Mary's life. After Mark learned of the Infant Jesus, whose birthplace the star had marked, he decided to leave his sheep and study with a physician in a distant city so that he might help the poor and ill and lonely. Mary, not fully understanding Mark's departure and hurt that her best friend seemed to be deserting her, decided to accept a position as nursemaid to the small son of a Pompeian nobleman. From the simple village in which she had always lived, she traveled by land and by sea to Pompeii, a city of great wealth and extravagant living. Mary was gay and lovely to look at, and it was small wonder that Lucius, a rich young man she met there, should fall in love with her. She liked him too, but always there was a feeling deep in her heart

that a life of service was richer than one of selfish pleasure, and she could not forget Mark. When the time came for Mary to return home on a visit to her father, the doubts in her heart and mind resolved themselves, and she knew at last where she truly belonged.

DURBAHN, W. E. *Fundamentals of Carpentry*. 2 Volumes. Chicago 38: American Technical Society, 848 E. 58th Street. 1956.

Volume I, "Tools, Materials, Practices." 386 pp. \$3.95. The respect which everyone has for the carpentry trade is attested to by the audience which a skilled craftsman almost invariably draws even when working on the simplest form of construction. This book opens the door to a fascinating craft—one which almost every man has, at one time or another, wished to master.

The author, with years of experience as a carpenter and teacher, gives in simple terms the valuable substance of his experiences in training hundreds of apprentices. Information on such important subjects as the selection of the proper tools, identification and choice of woods and materials, the practical use of the steel square, and the reading of blueprints is carefully discussed. Comprehensive information on insulation, the carpenter as an adviser to the home builder, builder's hardware, joints, and many other subjects of great interest and value are included. Many skilled carpenters have taken years to acquire this background information.

Tables and charts to which a carpenter must frequently refer are included for quick reference and, in addition, there is a ninety-six page Dictionary of Carpentry Terms—a practical aid in learning the "language of the trade."

Volume II, "Practical Construction." 524 pp. \$4.95. In this book one actually experience the step-by-step process of constructing a building. Every phase, from the excavating to the finishing, is discussed in the sequence in which the work will be completed. Standard practices, common problems, and safety measures—all of this information which only an experienced craftsman and teacher could give you—are incorporated in this comprehensive volume.

The explanation of building processes is illustrated with drawings that, in many cases, give a better idea of construction details than one would get from examining a structure. Always the emphasis is on the practical. Regional variations in construction are discussed so the good craftsman will learn to adjust to these differences. Modern home construction trends, with resultant opportunities for the carpenter, are presented verbally and in practical, modern illustrations. Operation and use of the level-transit are shown as proper accomplishments of the expert carpenter. A complete set of eight working drawings in blueprint form is included as an integral part of this book.

DUVALL, E. M. *Facts of Life and Love*. New York 7: Association Press. 1956. 444 pp. \$3.50. This is an honest guidebook to help every teenager enjoy growing up, with as few problems as possible. It is written by one of the nation's foremost counselors who knows the questions that trouble junior and senior high-school youth, because thousands of young people in schools, churches, youth centers, and homes from coast to coast have asked her these questions. The book isn't "preachy," doesn't "talk down" or "beat about the bush." It gives the facts with dignity when the topic is serious; it's light-hearted, too, wherever it should be (especially in the many cartoons).

About a fourth of the book presents the physiology of sex—clearly, in both words and illustrations—from what causes sexual growth to how human beings conceive and bear children. The rest of the book gives the facts needed to gain

self-confidence, poise, and social acceptance during adolescence, and to prepare for a happy marriage and home later on. It leads toward a satisfying life philosophy as it reveals itself in faith, ideas, attitudes, and behavior toward other people, especially the opposite sex. It explains what's expected on a date and how to be a good date. It answers those repeated questions about the good-night kiss, petting, love out of bounds, drinking, promiscuity, prostitution, venereal disease, homosexuality, fear of love, jealousy.

It describes how to tell whether its really love; it even tells how to "fall out of love" when one of the partners has reconsidered or been jilted. Serviceman dates, engagements and marriages are discussed realistically. When to become engaged; how long the engagement should last; what young men and women should know about each other before they marry; what kinds of couples stand the best chances for happy marriages; what marriage requires; how couples should start preparing now for that future home and family—all these commonsense questions are answered in a commonsense way.

ELLISON, HAL. *Tell Them Nothing*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1956. 154 pp. Paperbound edition, 35c; hardbound edition, \$2. Ten stories of teenage boys and girls whose lives are bound by the harsh code of gang life—where nothing is won or held except by violence and the whole world outside the gang is the enemy.

EMERY, ANNE. *Hickory Hill*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Company. 1955. 206 pp. \$2.75. With the beginning of a new and exhilarating life on the beautiful Indiana farm recently bought by her father, Jane Ellison has the perfect setting for her many 4-H club activities. First, the need to repair the house gives her an opportunity for a truly creative home improvement project—the complete redecoration of her own room. Then there is the care and training of a demanding young heifer named Daisy, who is soon to be shown at the fair.

But as if these two major occupations were not enough, Jane competes for and wins a place on the cheerleading team at Marquette High School. And added to all of it is the delightful and dismaying complication of Chuck—the tall blond boy with the wonderful smile who wants to be helpful and frequently is confused, depending on his reaction to Jane's own high but sometimes questionable enthusiasms.

The Fabulous Future. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 206 pp. \$3.50. What kind of a life will we have in 1980? What ideals and goals should we strive for? What are our chief problems? What can we accomplish by wise planning. In *The Fabulous Future*, these eleven distinguished and well-informed Americans outline their aspirations for the United States in the coming quarter century. For future planning, this book can be an invaluable guide. America in 1980 will be as different from the 1950's as today is from the gaslight era. Within the next 25 years we may achieve the global control of climate—the free use of energy—an educational system accommodating 5 million college students. These are not wild predictions but just a few of the sober forecasts of men in a position to appraise the prospects.

FAULKNER, WILLIAM. *Big Woods*. New York 22: Random House, Inc. 1955. 218 pp. \$3.95. William Faulkner's hunting stories are brought together for the first time in this thematically integrated and handsomely illustrated volume. They include "The Bear," "The Old People," "A Bear Hunt," and a new title never before available in book form—"Race at Morning." Each of the

four stories is introduced by a prelude and the final one is followed by an epilogue—evocations of the scene and mood of the individual tales, and profoundly moving and memorable tributes to both the hunters and the hunted. The many full-page and smaller illustrations and decorations are by Edward Shenton.

FEININGER, ANDREAS. *Changing America*. New York 16: Crown Publishers. 1955. 176 pp. \$5.95. In this book of over 200 photographs, Andreas Feininger, famous *Life* Photographer shows how man has changed and is changing the face of America. These photos give a pictorial account of what America must have been like before the advent of men. Then settlements from the first abodes of primitive man to the complex skyscraper cities; cultivation of the land, damming of rivers, industry, large and small. There are detailed identification, background information, and full technical data for each photograph. Supplementing the photographs is a lyrical description of the growth and change of our civilization written by Patricia Dyett.

FINK, D. H. *For People Under Pressure*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1956. 286 pp. \$3.50. In his psychiatric practice, Dr. Fink is constantly treating people who want to learn how to think things through for themselves and thus become independent, self-reliant, and capable of living happily under the sharp prods of today's mounting pressure and rapid change. He not only gives practical, realistic answers but also includes specific prescriptions for activating his advice. From his vast professional experience he has selected many fascinating case histories. But these are case histories with a difference. He, with unerring insight, always puts his finger on the point at which these people began heading into trouble. The result is a book that is not only highly instructive but also encouraging and warmly inspirational.

FITZGERALD, J. D. *Papa Married a Mormon*. New York 11: Prentice Hall. 1955. 310 pp. \$3.95. This is a true story of the old Utah frontier when Mormons and miners were struggling to forge a new life. It's the story of a boom town with its bad men and some not so bad, of evangelists, gamblers, gunmen, and Indians. And it's the heart-warming story of the venturesome Fitzgerald family, where Catholic, Mormon, and Methodist were lovingly united by the belief "that all religions are but windows of the same church."

FITZGIBBON, CONSTANCE. *20 July*. New York 3: W.W. Norton and Co., Inc. 1956. 299 pp. \$3.75. Because of wartime suppression and postwar confusion, very little has been written in English about the so-called "officers' plot" against Hitler, but the true story is unforgettable not only for its glimpse behind enemy lines but also for its meaning to history. The plot, which had its roots in prewar years and came within an instant of success on July 20, 1944, would have shortened the war by almost a year and saved the world a large portion of its present dilemma. In addition, it revealed in Germany a considerable group of men of the moral courage, conscience, and regard for humanity which Hitler and his régime so thoroughly denied.

The climax was the bomb explosion in Hitler's headquarters at Rastenburg. In spite of the freak of chance that saved the dictator's life, the explosion was the signal for a vigorous series of action which ended only after the rebels actually had gained and lost control of wartime Berlin.

It is a true tale of intrigue, danger, and sacrifice which failed because of inconceivable bad luck, a field marshal's frailty at the moment of crisis, and the astonishing failure of the British and American commands to take the one

small step that could have ended the war while the Russian army was still outside Germany's borders.

FOLEY, MARTHA, editor. *The Best American Short Stories 1955*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, Inc. 1956. 432 pp. 50c. Contains 24 of the best American short stories published during 1955.

FOSBURGH, HUGH. *The Sound of White Water*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1955. 192 pp. \$3. This is the story of a canoe trip down a river, over hazardous rapids, along slow lazy stretches, through quiet pools. The background is the big woods north country of upper New York State in the full tide of glorious June. Here is a novel so unusual it baffles description, a novel that will make a strong appeal to anyone who loves good writing and the out-of-doors.

The book has a wonderful rhythm, very much like the rhythm of the river itself: slow at times, then speeding up, then idling along. But it can't be described. If you want to know what it is, you'll have to read it. Then you too will share in the excitement and the fun, and in the beauty and marvel of wild woods and waters and living things depicted with a knowledge, a truth and a passion found only in writing of the first order—a renewing experience of pure disinterested happiness and bodily delight.

FRANKLIN, F. K. *Road Inland*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 1955. 320 pp. \$3.95. This is a novel about a sensitive young nurse attached to an advance hospital platoon from the time of the Normandy landing to the end of the War in Europe. Lee Craine and the hospital team, under the driving leadership of the brilliant and caustic head surgeon, Edward Collier, labored day and night in blazing heat and crippling cold in their primitive operating theaters, taking care of wave after wave of casualties.

In this atmosphere of blood and death there was nothing real except war. Lee could scarcely remember the short weeks she had spent with her husband, now flying somewhere in China. There were a few brief days shared with a young lieutenant to remind her that love still existed, and she was attracted in a strange way by the tortured Dr. Collier. But blood and death were her constant companions.

FRAZIER, N. L. *Young Bill Fargo*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 202 pp. \$2.75. A story of the young West when a train most often meant a wagon train, when people took a pride in the paddle wheels feathering their rivers, and a boy could overnight become a man. Bill is not particularly big nor does he consider himself brave. Though the trail boss is fair, Bill leaves the wagons and sets out alone across Indian country to find the brother who can settle everything. The rash boy who trails him is crippled in an Indian raid. Without food or equipment and winter coming on, thieves force Bill to guard their horde. Bill keeps a level head, does the things that must be done. Rescued, he sets quietly on his way again. The pretty, peppery girl of the wagon train has taken his beloved horse; he hasn't a friend, but Bill never hesitates. The end is a surprise even to Bill. Nothing turned out the way he expected. It turned out better. Our young hero is a pretty plucky fellow and the reader will be sorry to leave him when the story ends.

FRISCHAUER, WILLI, and ROBERT JACKSON. *The Altmark Affair*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1955. 255 pp. \$3.75. The infamous and sensational career of the *Altmark*, supply ship to the Nazi battleship, *Graf Spee*, was without parallel in the naval history of World War II. The complete

story of the *Altmark* is told here for the first time. In the tradition of the greatest sea tales, it is a saga of endurance and gallantry and of naval genius in action.

The *Altmark's* hazardous mission began on the first day of the war. In the swift weeks that followed, she soon found herself with an unexpected cargo and a dreadful responsibility. The *Graf Spee's* quick forays on British shipping had devastating results. Three hundred men—the unlucky crews of seven British ships—were imprisoned in the *Altmark's* crowded hold.

The authors describe the flaming details of the *Graf Spee's* last struggle—her struggle with the tenacious British cruisers which drove her to her death off the harbor of Montevideo. The fate of the *Altmark*—alone, virtually defenseless, hunted by the enraged Allied fleets—was still to be decided. Her fanatical captain was determined to bring his prisoners back to Hitler in triumph. The attempts of the captain to control his rebellious prisoners—his desperate penetration of the British blockade—the *Altmark's* final duel with a British cruiser in the icy waters of a Norwegian fjord—these are the tense climatic scenes in one of the most exciting sea tales to come out of the World War II.

GARLAND, J. H., editor. *The North American Midwest*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1955. 262 pp. (7¼" x 10"). Trade edition \$8; college edition \$6.75. The Midwest is perhaps the most important single region in North America and one of great significance in the future of the Western World. This book attempts to clarify the often vaguely delimited concept of that region by making a detailed study of the internal geographic structure of the Midwest.

Each of the fifteen contributors discusses a topic of his speciality or a Midwestern region with which he is thoroughly familiar. Part I develops the regional relationship of the Midwest to the rest of the North American geographic structure. Part II deals with the area systematically, by topics that apply to the entire Midwest as well as its relation to the rest of the world. Parts III and IV consist of a detailed regional treatment. While such a presentation is, in itself, not unusual, the manner in which regional theory is applied is entirely different, contributing more to geographic thought than the facts presented. It gives the reader an integrated picture of the total region by stressing the dominant qualities of the various human, cultural, and natural environmental associations.

GARST, SHANNON. *Dick Wootton*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1956. 192 pp. \$2.95. Dick Wootton blazed the great trails that opened the American West, hacking paths through the hostile wilderness. Trapper, trader, stage boss, government scout, express rider, buffalo hunter, his life was filled with adventure from the time he was a nineteen-year-old Kentucky tenderfoot with nothing in the world but a horse, a rifle, and a passion for excitement.

At Independence, Missouri, the last outpost of civilization, he joined a wagon train. The journey was rough even for experienced men—fording swollen streams, clearing the trail of rattlesnakes, fighting off Comanche attacks. On the desolate plains, Dick knew moments of terror and homesickness. But his courage won him the respect of his leader, and as the great-prowed wagons reached Fort Bent on the Arkansas, he began to feel like a man—a mountain man.

Dick headed a wagon train into Sioux country to trade with the Indians. With his profits he bought trapping equipment and in two years covered five thousand miles through Colorado, Wyoming, Washington, Oregon, and Cali-

fornia. Later he hunted buffalo; became a dispatch carrier and express rider. As army guide he acted as interpreter at the Navaho peace treaty. He drove a huge herd of sheep sixteen hundred miles to the meat-hungry gold miners of California, fighting Utes and the treachery of his own mutinous crew. Later he broke up gangs of cattle thieves, freighted for the government, and set up Denver's first log and frame buildings.

GAUL, ALBRO. *Space Travel*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1956. 160 pp. (7 $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 11"). \$4.95. "The first space pilot has already been born. He is probably between ten and sixteen years of age at this moment." This is the reason for Albro Gaul's book. It is not just another descriptive-imaginative work on space travel, but a combined handbook and elementary text for the prospective space-voyager.

While he does not avoid the technical, which is discussed in easily understood language, the author deals rather with the basic problems space travelers must contend with: the typical and biological conditions within the space ship in flight, the difficulties to be surmounted in building the ship, the problems of navigating in space. Beginning with the training of the prospective space pilot and with the basic machinery within the thin metal shell that will protect him from the dangers of outer space, the author discusses the essential problems of space travel: fuels, the step rocket, the take-off, location of the space port, the artificial satellite as an intermediate station, the goals themselves, the Moon and the planets. Finally, there is the whole problem of communication with alien races—who might possibly visit us first, unless they have already done so in the flying saucers which the author examines in some detail—and the question of making ourselves intelligible.

GRAHAM, J. S. *Venture at Lake Tahoma*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 186 pp. \$2.75. Trouble begins the very first day Grant Wetherell and his sister arrive at the Pack and Plane, a resort into which all the family's money has gone. But how can they make a go of the rundown old guest camp? Repairs are needed everywhere—sagging porch, broken windows, mice in the mattresses, cabins which must be moved to higher ground. Incidents happen for which there seems no explanation such as food not arriving on time, water in a line that cuts off electricity, a mine claim in a rival's name threatening to ruin business. Grant can well ask whether success comes from initiative, plus hard work, or from being a smart operator?

But there are compensations. Their new neighbors pitch in to help and Hogie, whose Indian name is Blue Eagle, becomes Grant's pal. Alec, an old shepherd, adds his wisdom to solving the boy's problem. Grant not only works hard, but comes up with plenty of ideas—holiday celebrations and contests, fishing supplies. The pack trip to the glacier is a success as is also the unusual Indian potlatch given by Hogie's grandmother. In spite of every difficulty they encounter during their first summer at Lake Tahoma, Grant's determination and resourcefulness help to pull them through. A mystery is unfolded in the telling of the story that should prove absorbing to teenage boys and girls.

GREAVE, PETER. *The Second Miracle*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1955. 254 pp. \$3. Simply, warmly, Peter Greave unfolds the inspiring story of his life of exile and loneliness. Day by day, week by week, he tells of the unforgettable men and women who shared his lot, of the nuns who helped make it bearable, and of the spiritual rebirth he found in a leprosarium. Yet it is not his ordeal which makes Peter Greave a wonderful and appealing person,

or his conquest of the dread disease which make *the second miracle* an inspiring book. Rather, it is the way he faced a life barely worth living that endears him to us. The pages of his book glow with quiet courage and faith and a rare humility. Peter Greave's triumph over the age-old affliction was a miracle. But the greater miracle—the second miracle—happened one tremulous moment at the door of the hospital chapel. It is this miracle which elevates Peter Greave's book to the stature of a classic.

HAMPSHIRE, STUART, selector. *The Age of Reason*. New York 22: Mentor Book. 1956. 192 pp. 50c. Basic writing of such seventeenth century philosophers as Bacon, Pascal, Hobbes, Galileo, Descartes, Spinoza, and Leibnitz.

HARMAN, J. P. *Such Is Life*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 1956. 218 pp. \$3. Fresh from Smith (Phi Beta Kappa) and a year on another magazine Jeanne Perkins Harman, feeling like one of Abner Deane's "What Am I Doing Here" cartoons, somehow weathered her initiation—a combination of Hell Week, the ordeal of the Spartans, and survival of the fittest—and graduated to setting up picture stories, writing on fashions and books, editing the "Letters to the Editor" column, writing picture captions, and interviewing celebrities ranging from Charlie, the trained seal, to movie queens. The daily battles between researchers and writers, the lethal personality clashes, the subtle tortures of Time's classic "treatment"—all these she managed to take in her stride, aided by moments of relaxation in the layout room (called "Cannery Row") where impudence and gaiety prevailed. And with all the frustrations and physical wear and tear, it is obvious that she really had a wonderful time.

HOGBEN, LANCELOT. *The Wonderful World of Mathematics*. New York 22: Garden City Books. 1955. 70 pp. (9½" x 12"). \$2.95. This dramatic presentation shows how the growth and development of civilization is also the story of the growth and development of mathematics as a science. Man first began to count by putting down one pebble for one animal or thing, two pebbles for two things and beyond three any quantity was just "a heap." His first "written" record was a notch on a tree or a stroke on a stone to mark the passage of days. Slowly through the ages he learned to measure and to count, to multiply and to divide. As he extended the scope of his building, surveying, navigating, he added to his store of mathematical ideas. Through trade, travel and conquest, there was a gradual interchange of knowledge among widely differing civilizations. Astronomers, merchants, priests and sailors from many parts of the world contributed to the ever growing science.

Our story takes us into a wonderful world where such geniuses as Galileo, Descartes, and Newton established the foundations of modern mathematics. It ends with a picture of the role this science plays in the technical marvels of today. All this makes an exciting story: but it does more than that. It brings clearly to life such basic mathematical concepts as how the decimal system works, the measurement of angles, how equations are solved, how and why speed against time can be measured on a graph. This book makes a good introduction to the fundamentals of mathematics; for young people and adults it is a stimulating integration and a fresh view of many subjects previously studied separately.

HORAN, J. D. *Mathew Brady*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1956. 264 pp. (8¾" x 12"). \$7.50. One of the great photographers of all time, Mathew Brady had a sense of history unequalled by any other cameraman. Very early in the era of photography, he recognized the importance of the picture as a document, and his career was that of historian as well as picture maker.

Not only is this the most complete story of Brady's life and work ever published, but also it is the first and only "authorized" biography. In the first place, it corrects the erroneous picture credits and inaccurate statements of other books. But more important and exciting is its wealth of newly uncovered material.

From the heirs of Levin Handy, Brady's nephew who took over Brady's studio and was the pioneer of today's vast governmental photo-duplication system, came letters, the family Bible, studio register, and lengthy firsthand information. (The material on Handy is a real "find," as are facts based on business, real estate, and personal documents from New York and Washington that go back to 1834 and have not been consulted by any previous Brady historian.) From the Library of Congress, which just acquired the great Brady-Handy collection of thousands of original negatives and is holding them restricted during cataloguing until 1964, came exclusive permission to examine the invaluable Brady plates, to make a conclusive selection, and to publish prints reproduced directly from those plates. From intensive research in areas related to the subject, came valuable information from all known persons and collections that might contribute to the Brady story.

Until now Mathew Brady has been most famous for his Civil War pictures. But, beginning almost with the invention of photography in 1839, Brady, the farmboy from the frontier, became America's photographer. Internationally famous as Brady of Broadway, he photographed just about every celebrated American in the political, military, theatrical, literary, scientific, and journalistic fields. ("*Brady and the Cooper Institute made me President of the United States*," Abraham Lincoln was to say.) Almost every notable foreign visitor, including the Prince of Wales, came to his studio. He made many photographs of the American scene—New York views, Washington panoramas, parades, groups and gatherings, etc. And he preserved, so far as possible, all the plates for their usefulness in history. His magnificent Civil War photograph is well known but some little-known and some probably unpublished war photographs are included in this book.

After the war, for many years, a "Photograph by Brady" was an American hallmark and the Brady studio was active in every kind of picture project. From the many thousands of existing plates remaining from this half century of brilliant photography, the author has compiled a 500-picture album to complement the biography of this great genius of photography. It is an amazing treasury of pictures made direct from original Brady wet plates and daguerreotypes, some of which are one hundred years old. Included also are the rare Western views of the fabulous Tim O'Sullivan and Alexander Gardner, and the work of other famous Brady-trained photographers. This unparalleled collection of photographs, tremendously exciting in themselves, serves to heighten the genuine drama of Brady's life story.

HOUSTON, M. G. *Ancient Greek, Roman, and Byzantine Costume and Decorations*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1947. 192 pp. \$5. This volume is marked by the same scholarship and meticulous accuracy of detail as is the other volumes of the series. It is essentially a book for practical use. There is a close relationship between text and drawings, and the details given of cut and arrangement of such garments as the toga are the result of actual practice as well as careful research. The illustrations, of which there are over 200, are closely based on work of the periods covered. Details of textiles, decorations,

jewellery, children's dress, and styles of hairdressing add to the value of the book. To designers, art students, and others interested in costume, the book will be helpful.

HOVIOUS, CAROL. *New Trails in Reading*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1956. 480 pp. \$3.20; *Teachers Manual*, 60c. This new high-school text uses the most recent knowledge of the psychology of learning to teach the techniques of reading. Vitaly interesting selections and a great variety of approaches to the problem of interpreting the printed page make this book attractive to students of many different levels of ability. All the selections have been classroom tested for interest and efficiency. Every story was written to satisfy all the demands of its particular job. It is high in interest, effective in developing a desired skill, correct in its level of social maturity.

The book is planned so that the student can proceed on his own with a minimum of attention from the teacher. Full directions are given for both written and oral work, and even for scoring and evaluating that work. It re-educates the reluctant reader. The psychological approach used throughout the book helps the student to understand why he is a poorer reader than he might be and encourages him to help himself. The book modifies those attitudes toward reading and toward himself which block his improvement as a reader. It stimulates the development of self-confidence by repeatedly assuring the student that he can become a better reader and asking him to prove it for himself. It stimulates the development of personal discipline by putting him on his own to follow the book under his own power. It stimulates the development of co-operation by providing for group co-operation in activities. In addition it provides an effective challenge to improvement by showing students that reading is a creative transaction between the author and each reader.

Average and superior readers will profit from the book just as much as reluctant readers. The high level of interest, the flexibility of suggested exercises, and the rich variety of activities will appeal to the gifted student and enlist his enthusiastic efforts.

One of the book's unique features is the material on reading pictures. By dealing with a carefully chosen set of photographs, readers are guided to understand and appreciate pictures and to discriminate among the flood of photographs that they find in newspapers and magazines. The book is illustrated with drawings and photographs—many in two, three, and four colors.

JEWETT, ARNO; MARION EDMON; and PAUL MC KEE. *Adventure Bound*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1956. 608 pp. \$3.68. This book is composed of 10 units of study. It includes more than 100 literary selections of a wide variety of types of writing. These selections are arranged within the units, entitled Animals, Sports, Danger and Daring, Living Together, Our Scientific World, Tales of the Past, Interesting People, Just for Laughs, In Other Lands, and Treasures from Our Heritage. The selections are of the live type—such as will appeal to the interests of high-school boys and girls. Included with each unit are additional pupil suggestions for further reading as well as sections on "Toward Better Understanding" and "Words and Their Uses." Included also are suggestions on developing reading skills, on how to use the dictionary, and an index on types of literature and authors and titles. The book is attractively and interestingly illustrated in black and white and in color.

JONES, E. G. *Enjoying Health*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 446 pp. This text is based upon the findings of the Denver study of

health interests of children and for that reason should be particularly effective in changing behavior since it is based upon those interests which high-school boys and girls have indicated to be theirs. The high interests in senior high school are attractive appearance and physical fitness. It is around these concepts that the text is constructed. Too frequently reading and discussing, while important experiences, assume an undue proportion of the time of senior high-school students. This book is so written and so organized that doing is made an integral part of class activity. The text is particular adaptable for classes in which pupils and teachers plan together by discovering problems and seeking answers.

The text is designed to be resource material for such classes. It is not necessary that the subjects be considered in the order in which they are presented in the text. One feature is that each chapter has a picture preview which will be useful for stimulating interest and planning. Thus, classes are helped to set goals for their study and to evaluate their progress. Each chapter is also preceded by suggestions for individual and committee experiences, panels, research, and various activities at home and in the community.

Each chapter ends with a series of test materials that cover the important health concepts developed within the chapter. The listings of other readings and filmstrips and moving pictures, also found at the end of each chapter, will be of great help to the teacher.

JONES, L. I.; R. L. DONAHUE; and E. F. EVANS. *The Range and Pasture Book*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 416 pp. The interest in grassland agriculture is increasing. This means that everyone who is concerned with the operation of farms and ranches wants more and more information about the principles and practices of grassland management. In fact, there is a definite lag between the need for the availability of well-organized, nontechnical information.

Although the subject of grasslands is older than the plow, the authors have presented important new approaches to the study of the grassland resources of the United States. These approaches include the extent, character, and use of pastures, range-lands, and haylands for forage production and the conservation of soil, water, and wildlife. Although the national viewpoint is emphasized, many examples of regional and state problems and practices are cited.

In surveying the writings in the field of grassland agriculture, the authors found that comparatively little attention has been given to the relation of grassland management to watersheds and wildlife. Accordingly, they have included two chapters on these important topics. Within a few years the national grassland program has attracted the attention of millions of people in every state and region. Through this program, farmers and ranchers are making more profit from grassland crops and livestock, and at the same time the nation's soils are becoming more productive.

KANE, H. T. *The Smiling Rebel*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company. 1955. 314 pp. \$3.95. This is the story of Belle Boyd, the most glamorous spy of the Civil War. Most of her sisters-in-espionage were fiftyish and fanatic; but not Belle. At seventeen, when her career began, she was not only pretty, but bright-spirited, witty, and possessed of a poise that was to make generals wilt. The author has based this historical novel on the life of the liveliest and most provocative subject about which he has ever written.

Belle Boyd became a heroine early in the war when she shot a Yankee soldier who was trying to raise the Union flag over her family's house in Martinsburg,

Virginia. The town was crawling with Yankee troops and Belle soon turned to spying on them and reporting, often at great danger, to the Confederates. When Martinsburg became too hot for her, she moved to Front Royal and started spying for Stonewall Jackson. Captured by the Northerners, she charmed her way out of captivity and returned through the lines, armed with a number of military secrets. Belle finally fell in love with a Yankee officer, which proved to be her undoing—but only temporarily, as you will find when you read the book. The author has written a story filled with high suspense, unexpected twists, humor, and romance—a story about a war in which chivalry played almost as important a part as courage and in which secrets were as deadly as bullets.

KANTOR, MacKINLAY. *Andersonville*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company. 1955. 767 pp. \$5. At the moment of history when Leo Tolstoy set the words into the complex fabric of *War and Peace*, a pine forest was chopped down near Anderson Station in Sumter County, Georgia. A wooden stockade was built. There, within twenty-odd acres of habitable ground, fifty thousand men and boys suffered, die—or survived—during the next fourteen months.

Naked to the elements, captured Federal troops died beneath the sun, shivered in winter winds. The staggering Confederacy was unable to feed properly her own armies in the field. The Yankees starved. Or they were shot by quivering patriarchs and cripples and terrified children who guarded them. Or were choked by hulking sadists of their own number. Or raved, cursing the very commanders under whom they had served; for the National Government refused stubbornly to allow them to be exchanged for a like number of Confederate prisoners.

Any one of these men could have won to freedom and comfort in an instant by taking an oath of allegiance to the South. Nearly fourteen thousand of them chose to die instead. It was the most tragic episode in American history—and the most glorious.

MacKinlay Kantor began his study of Andersonville more than a quarter of a century ago. This mighty novel is the result. Herein swarm not only the prisoners and those who held or slew them; but here throbs the panorama of America itself. Ira Claffey, a native Georgian, a man of courage, sensitivity, and pride, at whose doorstep the ghastly stockade structure is reared; Veronica Claffey, shocked into numb despair by the loss of her sons; Lucy, their daughter who finds love here with Harrell Elkins, veteran of the Southern Army, who is willing to sacrifice his very life to alleviate the torture of those who had been his enemies; the Widow Tebbs, constantly amiable to a fault—these are some of those who live on the land about Andersonville, in the rich varied intimacy of Georgia plantation life of the time.

Others live there too. Plain citizens of Georgia, who load their wagons with vegetables, meat, clothing which they can ill afford to offer, and attempt to convey these gifts to the suffering youth of Andersonville—only to be turned back, insulted, threatened. General Winder announces with satanic glee that he is killing more enemies here than were being shot in the battle lines. And Henry Wirz, assuredly the most pitiable jailer in all history is the only Confederate officer tried and executed after the war for his crimes. And behind the stockade are the prisoners. Whistles scream at the depot. Another contingent has arrived. They come trailing toward the big gates—poet, dunce, dreamer,

artisan; the miller's son with bird-songs in his ears; the doctor's son with his sweetheart's letter in his Testament; the ruffian with brass knuckles in his pocket.

KENYON, F. W. *Marie Antoinette*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 1956. 379 pp. \$3.95. Marie Antoinette, last and loveliest Queen of France, now joins the gallery of glamorous women so successfully portrayed by the author in his previous novels—Josephine in *The Emperor's Lady* and Lady Hamilton in *Emma*. And the story of this light-hearted girl and gallant woman tops the others in its appeal to our hearts.

When she came to the glittering Court at Versailles, the dancing, golden-haired bride of the Dauphin who was to become Louis XVI, she was just fourteen years old. Throwing herself with fervor into the revelries and extravagances of the Court, she set styles in fashion and hairdress, filled her days and nights with pleasure, and piled up over the years the mountainous debts that added fuel to the smoldering fires of the French Revolution. There was much speculation as to her lovers—but actually she had but one real love in her life, a great and tragic love affair, star-crossed by the forces of history. Amidst the horror and bloodshed of the Revolution, Marie Antoinette attained full stature as woman and as queen, spirited and courageous to the dramatic end.

KIRKUS, VIRGINIA. *The First Book of Gardening*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1956. 68 pp. \$1.95. For the first gardeners of any age, this book is a practical guide to planting, caring for, and harvesting both flowers and vegetables. A large map indicates the proper planting time in different parts of the United States, and Helene Carter's beautiful drawings provide an accurate step-by-step visual guide to plant care and identification.

KOVACH, NORA and ISTVAN RABOVSKY. *Leap Through the Curtain*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1955. 223 pp. \$3.50. Young, talented, and pampered by the Communist regimes of both Russia and Hungary, Nora Kovach and Istvan Rabovsky were driven only by their innate love of liberty when, in May of 1953, they seized the opportunity of a performance in East Berlin to escape to the West and freedom. They were escaping not from persecution but from privilege. Though both had been born in modest circumstances, they were stars of the ballet, making more money than government ministers, with a splendid apartment, servants, and even that inconceivable Iron Curtain luxury, their own car.

For after early privations, fortune had smiled on Nora and Istvan. They first met as children at the Ballet School of the Royal Hungarian Opera, and were soon drawn to each other. By the time they were sixteen and seventeen, they were offered contracts to dance at the Opera and became partners. When the great Russian dancer Ulanova visited Budapest, she so praised the work of the gifted two that they were sent to study in Russia with the legendary Gusev and Vaganova. They returned as stars to Budapest, and finally, in 1952, were married.

A year later their great chance of escape was offered to them. The account of their dash from East to West Berlin is one of the most vivid episodes in an exciting book. This is a fascinating, romantic, and wholly winning story of two young people whose talent, luck, and hard work drove them to the heights in a Communist country, and who gave it all up to start over again in the freer air of the West.

LABAREE, L. W., and WHITFIELD, J. BELL, JR., editors. *Mr. Franklin*. New Haven 7: Yale University Press. 1956. 85 pp. (7¼" x 10¼"). \$3.75. Here are twenty-seven letters that reflect the appealing personality of the first American to achieve world fame. Benjamin Franklin's eighty-four years spanned most of the 18th century. Into those years he crowded enough interests and achievements to merit Carl Van Doren's apt phrase, "He was a harmonious human multitude."

These letters have been drawn from *The Papers of Benjamin Franklin*, a new edition of his writings now in process under the sponsorship of the American Philosophical Society and Yale University. Some of them are familiar, many of them have previously been printed only obscurely, and a few have never been published before. All bear witness to Franklin's skill as a writer and meet his own requirements of good writing, that it be smooth, clear, and short.

In this book, issued on the occasion of the 250th anniversary of his birth, January 17, 1956, the new editors of his papers present Mr. Franklin as Deborah's husband, Sally's father, the generous counselor, the warm friend, the entertaining correspondent. This is a glimpse of Franklin the man, in all the colorful variety of his experience and feeling, the one above all Americans who combined the greatest talents and the greatest human attractiveness.

LAING, FREDERICK. *The Giant's House*. New York 16: 1955. 437 pp. \$3.95. This is a novel about a modern giant. His name is John Horgan and he is the founder of the Giant John Horgan Grocery Co.—though he erased "Giant" when his business got so gigantic he wanted to hide its size. The giant's house is the huge, ramshackle warehouse across the East River from Manhattan from which John Horgan's supermarket chain reaches into millions of American homes.

The Giant's House is the story of how John Horgan began as an immigrant dishwasher and ended up as the sole owner of one of the most powerful business empires in the nation. Not that you could ever judge his worth by his appearance. Horgan was always an unkempt man—shabby clothes crowned with a battered, felt hat which he wore summer and winter, indoors and out because, according to rumor, he was as bald as the eggs he sold. But don't be fooled, John Horgan is a powerful man and a ruthless one—if there's any truth in the story they tell about what happened to Larry Brantit, Horgan's first business partner, and his last.

And yet John Horgan can be a charmer. *The Giant's House* is crowded with people who out of greed, fear, respect, and even love have fallen under his spell. There are little ones, like the genial man who runs the pop-bottler, and the fellow who is humiliated out of the warehouse by the women who grade the eggs, and the vice-president who is terrified of his boss.

LAMB, HAROLD. *New Found World*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company. 1955. 336 pp. \$5.75. This is the swift and vivid narrative of history's most exciting search—the discovery of America. The story begins with Columbus, but turns back for an arresting view of pre-history, somewhere between ten and thirty thousand years ago, when the glaciers of the ice age were retreating and a land bridge still existed between Siberia and Alaska. Dawn-age hunters followed mammoth and musk ox down into the continent and, in ever-strengthening tribes, moved into its farthest corners—the swamps of Florida and the stony shores of Newfoundland.

Meanwhile, in Europe, civilization was forging ahead. Science had made rapid strides and by Columbus's time only the most ignorant of men actually thought the earth was flat. Explorers' troubles came not so much from ignorance as from the indifference and ingratitude of their sovereigns; John Cabot, like Columbus, fell into disgrace for not discovering enough, and Balboa was falsely accused of treason and hanged. Nevertheless, exploration of the newly discovered continent went on and the discoverers were replaced by such explorers as De Soto, Coronado, Cartier, Champlain, and Drake.

LAMBERT, O. D. *Stephen Benton Elkins*. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press. 1956. 356 pp. \$6. This book is a biography of a man whose life spanned and colored the rugged parts of two centuries. Stephen Benton Elkins was descended of Virginia pioneers who migrated to the wild Ohio Valley. He was named for Senator Tom Benton, who duelled Andrew Jackson to a draw. He belonged to the age of Kit Carson, Wild Bill Hickok, and John J. Fremont, the days of the Oregon Trail and the California gold rush, and the days of dawning social conscience. He grew up in a time of storm, when the dust kicked up by covered wagons going West was crossed by those insistent wheels for the first time, and he lived to see a mighty nation stretching west to the Pacific and south to the borders of Mexico.

And he was a man of his time: at once bold and kind, shrewd and generous, vociferous and analytical, charming and serious, soft and hard—a big man with a round, red face and a smile so kind and disarming that it captivated, and inspired other men to help him cut down forests, build railroads, set up laws, oppose tyranny with word and deed. His vision, like a great stream, pushed far ahead of his time, carrying with it his recommendations for a national department of labor with a secretary of cabinet rank, purity of foods guaranteed by law, severe restrictions on child labor, and legal regulation of corporations.

Lawyer, teacher, politician, railroad builder, statesman, industrial pioneer, he founded and named an important West Virginia industrial town. He was Secretary of War under President Harrison and a United States Senator from 1895 to his death in 1911. In his business adventures he "never made a serious mistake or sustained a heavy loss."

LATHROP, WEST. *Dogsled Danger*. New York 22: Random House, 1956. 255 pp. \$2.95. This story of high adventure in the days of the Yukon Gold rush is as exciting as a good movie. To Cleeve Britton, a rugged American boy just two years in Alaska, the afternoon on which the story opens was like many others. With his dog Jet and a borrowed dog team and dog sled, he had made the long trip to complete an errand for his mother's store. Now he was on his way home. . .

There the similarity to other days ended. A mysterious stranger overtook Cleeve and forced him to accompany him to a cabin in a deserted part of the country where a fellow conspirator was waiting. And suddenly Cleeve knew who these men were. They were outlaws being hunted by the Canadian Mounties! Desperate for food and supplies, their own dogs gone, they needed Cleeve's team—and they could not risk letting the boy go.

How Cleeve escaped from them and, alone with his dog Jet, forged on through the frozen country of the North, his pursuers following, forms only part of this thrilling story. More adventures were in store for Cleeve and Jet, including the sharing of a thrilling secret with an old Sourdough and a visit to the Gold Commissioner's office that brought unexpected results.

LEE, W. S. *The Green Mountains of Vermont*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, Inc. 1955. 318 pp. \$5. Here is a rich harvest of Vermont lore—colorful scenes from the state's history, friendly vignettes of its people, fresh insights into Vermont culture and tradition, absorbing accounts of Vermont industries and natural resources—a wonderful profusion of stories, told with wit and warmth, about Vermont's town meetings and camp meetings; heroes, humorists, and eccentrics; lakes and forests; early roads and turnpikes; schools and village greens; century-old summit houses and watering places; covered bridges and homespun entertainments; Yankee ways and the Puritan heritage; the tourist trade and winter sport; and the native sons who have brought something "distinctly Vermont" to the national scene and world affairs.

In this happy gathering, W. Storrs Lee adds new point to the familiar tales and tells some new ones with points of their own. He writes of marble, milk, and maple syrup which have done so much for the wealth and fame of Vermont; of Vermont iron for the guns of the Revolution; of whiskey distilling and religious propaganda which brought verve and variety to Vermont's middle years; of gold and silver mining, too, which produced little more than a wry smile on the faces of some gullible Vermonters.

Here is Stephen A. Douglas, "The Little Giant," who would have been larger still but for Mr. Lincoln; Samuel Morey, who invented and launched the first steamboat; Wilson Bentley, who made a life-work of photographing snowflakes; Calvin Coolidge, who went fishing in a high collar; and a good many more.

LEITHAUSER, J. G. *Worlds Beyond the Horizon*. New York 22: Alfred A Knopf. 1955. 445 pp. \$6.75. This is the fascinating story of that most dramatic and adventurous of human enterprises—the discovery and exploration of unknown lands. From the days of Henry the Navigator and Columbus to the great polar expeditions of our own time, the author unfolds in a vigorously paced narrative the fabulous careers of all those visionary and impassioned men whose achievements brought about an entirely new conception of the planet we inhabit and revolutionized the shape and character of our civilization.

For sheer audacity and reckless courage, the men who set out against seemingly overwhelming odds to cross uncharted seas or to penetrate to the remote interiors of unexplored continents, tropical wildernesses, and polar wastes stand by themselves in the chronicle of human endeavor. Here, superbly told in gripping detail, are the stories of the discoverers of the Western Hemisphere—Columbus, Cabot, Vespucci; the intrepid pathfinders of vast and virgin oceans—da Gama, Magellan, Balboa; conquistadors like Cortes, Pizarro, Coronado, and Ponce de Leon; trail-blazers of continents like John Smith, Champlain, La Salle, Alexander von Humboldt, and La Condamine; explorers of the Dark Continent such as Stanley, Livingstone, and Mungo Park; and the no less dramatic and significant names in polar exploration such as Scott, Amundsen, Nansen, and Peary.

LEWITON, MINA. *Penny's Acres*. New York 17: David McKay Company, 1955. 320 pp. \$2.75. What happens when a country community begins to die? What is the solution for the young people faced with having to make a choice—leave or stay, escape, accept, or try to remake? And what about the old people who have lost their interest in the crafts that once were their pride and who cling to a tradition which is losing force? This is the problem that faces Penny Rowan, just graduating from Candle Rock High School, and ultimately faces everyone in Evergood County, an old farming community set in a magnifi-

cent sweep of New England countryside under the shadow of Rowans Mountain. On the one hand is Tom Rowan, Penny's grandfather, determined to restore the already vast Rowan lands to their original size. On the other is Robert Hayden, wanting that land and promising a huge new project and a flourishing town in exchange for a dying one in which, says Penny's friend Randy Miller, "nothing ever happens."

At the center of the book are the young people who stand between the old and the new. People like Penny, like Randy, the handsome but irresponsible young musician who wants to go away to the city; A. O., the school teacher who loves the wilderness but needs what Candle Rock can give him; and Alix Hayden, the lovely newcomer with the tragic handicap. Can they leave Candle Rock, the land, the life, the people? But should they stay, however easy it might be to do so, if staying means sinking into a way of life completely dominated by tradition?

The decision, as it turns out, lies finally with Penny herself. Randy is part of it, and Alix, and A. O. She must realize that a new factor, love, has broken the pleasant pattern of her childhood relationships. But beyond her personal feelings lies the land—Penny's acres. Understanding she cannot stem progress, but unwilling to see the past lost in a future of mechanized business enterprise, Penny clings to a dream her father had for Candle Rock—to revive its oldest and loveliest handicrafts. So, if Penny has her way, a loom will be working, a kiln will be fired, and the town will make things "with loving care and at leisure," and hand on this knowledge to satisfy the creative need all people have.

Here in the story of a girl, with all the secret doubts and ambitions of seventeen, are the widest implications for other peaceful villages like Candle Rock caught in the march of decentralization, and for other young people whose decisions change themselves, and the world they live in.

LINDGREN, H. C. *Educational Psychology in the Classroom*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1956. 537 pp. The role of the classroom teacher in the learning situation is the main focus of this textbook. Research findings of psychology and the other behavioral sciences are brought to bear upon the every day problems faced by teachers in their essential task of helping students to learn. Dr. Lindgren's treatment of learning processes and problems is both broad and dynamic. He covers such vital topics as self-concept, emotional maturity, the role of attitudes in learning, psychological needs, anxiety, emotional climate, and development tasks.

The recognition in recent years by psychologists and educators of the importance of the psychology of the group is reflected by chapters on "The Learner and His Group" and "Learning through Group Methods." In treating the subject of discipline, he also emphasizes the importance of "task-oriented discipline" as a factor that helps to facilitate learning.

LOCHNER, L. P. *Always the Unexpected*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 351 pp. \$5. Looking back over a long career, one of America's most distinguished foreign correspondents here recalls the amusing and exciting experiences that came his way, the people he knew, the events he observed, and the strategy he employed to solve a newspaperman's problem abroad. For Louis Lochner, it was always the unexpected that happened. He had dreamed of a musical career, but instead found himself happily working for the Associated Press in Berlin. There he stayed for more than twenty eventful years between the two wars, in due course becoming the Chief of the Bureau. Throughout this critical period, he had to be ready to cover any kind of story—

the Olympic Games, the domestic scene in Middle Europe, and especially international politics. Things seldom went according to plan. From his Berlin headquarters he roamed throughout Europe, tracking down news stories. He came to know such divergent personalities as Kaiser Wilhelm, Henry Ford, Foreign Minister Gustav Stresemann, Cardinal Pacelli (now Pope Pius XII), Einstein, Gorki, Richard Strauss, Pilsudski, and Eleanor Holm. Of the Hitler he saw too much.

LOVEJOY, C. E. *Lovejoy's College Guide*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster. 1956. 246 pp. \$3.95. This is a reference book of 2,049 American Colleges and Universities for use by parents, students, teachers, and guidance counselors. This new, enlarged, completely revised edition includes descriptions of all junior and community Colleges, independent private schools, technical institutes, as well as the senior degree-conferring colleges and universities. It contains information on such questions as how to choose a college, how to obtain admission, what colleges are accredited, what programs are available, what scholarships grants and loans are available and how to get them, what is the cost, what work opportunities are available, where to locate career curricula, and many other areas.

LUZADDER, W. J. *Technical Drafting Essentials*. Second edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 351 pp. \$3.75. This book presents the basic fundamentals for all fields of engineering drafting, with reference to the latest practices in industry. The text is almost self-teaching—covering the fundamentals of projection in detail, with written explanations and illustrations. The student will be able to answer his own questions in many instances. The material is in agreement with all of the latest ASE and SAE standards. The book can be used as a basic text in mechanical or engineering drawing in trade, technical, and industrial schools; and in high schools, junior colleges, and teacher colleges. It is so flexibly organized and gives such complete coverage for all fields, that it is adaptable to almost any course at any level. Two new sets of problems, prepared by Bolles and Luzadder, are now available for use with this text. Ask about *Problems in Drafting Fundamentals*.

MALVERN, GLADYS. *Saul's Daughter*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 253 pp. \$3. Michal, daughter of royal Saul, was lovely and impetuous, with too much spirit for a girl. From the first, she was fascinated by the shepherd boy whose songs, it was hoped, would soothe the king. Meeting by chance on a hillside, they are strangely drawn to each other. David becomes like a son to the king; the prince, Jonathan, swears brotherhood. Michal, slipping away from the court of the women, sees her beloved achieve his great victory over the giant, Goliath. He goes from one challenge to another. But the people love David too. The nervous king hears a foolish street song and is turned against him. When Saul consents to the marriage of one of his daughters to David, he is already plotting against him. Again and again, Jonathan and Michal contrive to save David's life. When the king sends soldiers, Michal tricks them—for years she has only scraps of news of him.

MAYOR, J. R., and M. S. WILCOX. *Algebra, First Course*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 400 pp. \$3.08. Teachers of mathematics know that the first year of algebra can be exceedingly important in the mathematical lives of the pupils under their guidance. Success in algebra will bring to pupils real understanding of what they have learned in arithmetic, as well as appreciations, desirable in their lives. A first year of algebra, well done, is essen-

tial to progress in mathematics and in many other areas of learning. To assist pupils in achieving these ambitious goals and to make this year of study easy and enjoyable for the pupils and the teacher are the purpose of this book.

In all chapters, the ideas of algebra are developed from arithmetic. While there is no chapter in review of arithmetic, the text provides many review exercises closely related to arithmetic. These exercises at the same time develop topics in algebra and make them meaningful. This algebra text, with frequent references to topics in arithmetic, many applications from geometry, careful treatment of elementary trigonometry, and the introduction of some elementary but fundamental ideas from analytic geometry, should enable the teacher to develop algebra as a logical whole, while laying a solid foundation for the study of the high-school mathematics subjects which follow.

A feature of this text is to be found in the supplementary reading lists at the ends of chapters. Students in first-year algebra should be encouraged to make use of the high-school library. These references can be used by the teacher as a source of enrichment materials for the better students and also as a means of interesting many students with less natural interest in mathematics. Some of the references are expository in character and will be of value to slower students in acquiring understanding of topics considered in class. The text includes not only a chapter review list and chapter test, but also a cumulative review at the end of each chapter.

Chapter 11 includes a variety of topics that can appropriately be studied in a first-year algebra course. Some sections of this chapter can be used at the beginning of the course, and others can provide for an extension of units where the teacher feels that additional time is needed. The material is also appropriate for supplementary work on the part of students who progress more rapidly.

McCAGUE, JAMES. *The Big Ivy*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1955. 320 pp. \$3.50. Here's a three-dimensional picture of railroad men and women in the great era of American railroading at the turn of the century. It's an exciting story filled with the drama of record runs, wrecks, rivalries, and the constant contest against time and the weather. Jem Gandee grew up in a railroad junction town and couldn't remember when he didn't want to be an engineer. Before he could work, he knew the lingo of the rails, the anatomy of engines, the skill of every fireman and engineer of the "Big Ivy" (the Indiana Valley line). Locomotives, semaphores, journal boxes, sand domes were as familiar to him as the batting averages of baseball players. And Jem began at the bottom, in the roundhouse, making up freighters, firing for one of the best engineers on the road until, finally, his chance came. Jem was a big man, and he knew all there was to know about his engine. You share his suffering in the big Fourth of July wreck and you share every breathtaking second of the mail run that broke the cross-country record. You share also Jem's friendship with Lee Wire, the boomer, and their rivalry for Bess Teach who ran the diner. That was a romance run on the schedule of the railroad and so was Jem's courtship of his boyhood heroine, Clara.

MC DERMOTT, I. E., and F. W. NICHOLAS. *Living for Young Moderns*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 404 pp. This book, written for young people on the threshold of adulthood, is meant to inspire high ideals and right standards of living in the home, at work and at play, in the conduct of friendships, and as citizens of America and of the world. It is the intention of the book to reveal opportunities for the practice of moral and spiritual values

as they are encountered in all human relationships: getting along with the family, meeting and solving money problems, dating, marriage, earning, spending and saving, the daily routine of living, and participation in government. This includes the learning of much factual material, the development of skills, the development of problem-solving abilities and appreciations, but, most important, the development of *attitudes* which make all these things worth while.

Each of the eleven chapters in this book deals with an area of living which constitutes a problem to be approached from the personal point of view, with the idea of learning to *think, feel, and react* in the most desirable way. Numerous opportunities are offered throughout the book for the stimulation and development of right attitudes in living through discussion, analysis of human relationships, creative role-acting, and thoughtful self-evaluation.

MURRAY, JOHN. *Mystery Plays for Young People*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1956. 378 pp. \$4. Excitement and entertainment for actors and audiences are blended in the sixteen one-act, royalty-free plays of mystery and suspense in this volume. Stolen jewels, ghosts, murders and near-murders, missing will, and international intrigue provide some of the puzzling plot situations in these dramas. Young people will enjoy the characters portrayed—unctuous butlers, nervous maids, undercover agents, garrulous dowagers, amateur detectives, efficient policemen, daring newspaper reporters, suspicious secretaries,—and always the vanishing villain. The situations are believable, and the fast-paced action moves to thrilling climaxes, often with a touch of romance. In addition to the straight detective and mystery plays, there is a rollicking farcesque satire on the conventional detective yarn which offers exaggerated versions of the “armchair” sleuth and the hard-boiled “private-eye.”

MURRAY, VICTOR, A. *Teaching the Bible*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press. 1955. 142 pp. \$3.50. “To many people the teaching of the Bible seems easy” says Dr. Murray, “because all you need to do is to re-tell the Bible stories in your own words—or so I have heard it stated. To many others it is exceedingly difficult because they are conscious that more is expected of them than in a history lesson, and yet they do not know how much more.” Dr. Murray confines himself to the teaching of the Bible itself, and does not consider the teaching of doctrine or church history or morality. He has kept in mind both the teachers to whom it “seems easy” and those who find it exceedingly difficult. The book has four sections: the first studies the case for Scripture teaching in our schools, its value as a constituent part of public education, and the qualifications required by a teacher. The second section is a straight-forward discussion of the subject-matter, in which the author does not shirk the obstacles raised by rationalists on the one hand, or by fundamentalists on the other. The third part deals with what the author calls strategy; that is, the syllabus; and the fourth part, with tactics; that is, the actual conduct of a Scripture lesson. These later chapters have been derived from experience gained in teaching school boys and in training teachers.

MYERS, B. S., editor. *Encyclopedia of Painting*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1955. 512 pp (8¼" x 11"). \$10.95. This large book is probably the most comprehensive one-volume encyclopedia of the art of painting ever published in the English language. Its over 3,000 entries contain biographies of the great painters of all time, including comprehensive sections on Chinese, Japanese, Persian, and Indian painting and lengthy articles on African art, Etruscan art, Egyptian art, cave painting, and so forth. In addition there are

definitions of all technical terms and histories of the various "movements" in painting: Impressionism, non-objective painting, Surrealism, etc.

The 1,000 illustrations have been gathered from all parts of the world, from places as remote as Korea and Teheran and from hundreds of institutions and private collections. The aid of many agencies of foreign governments has been involved in tracking down the required pictures. Perhaps the most unusual feature of the book is the integration of its illustrations, both color plates and halftones, with the text, so that in every case they are near the entry, whether biographical or descriptive, which they illustrate. These illustrations have been printed with great care to insure the finest quality of reproduction and to help make the *Encyclopedia of Painting* a beautiful art book as well as an important reference work.

NOBLE, IRIS. *Nellie Bly, First Woman Reporter.* New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 192 pp. \$3.95. In 1885 few careers were open to women, least of all in the newspaper world. But tiny, eighteen-year-old Elizabeth Cochran became America's first woman reporter, and under the by-line of Nellie Bly scandalized and thrilled the nation. She risked her life to expose crime and corruption and risked her reputation as a "lady" by going into slums, prisons, and sweat factories to get her stories first-hand. She got herself committed to Blackwell's Island, pretending insanity, in order to investigate and report on rumors of brutalities to mental patients. She was attacked, resented, reviled—but her stories were read by millions in New York City's famous newspaper, *The World*. And when she set out to beat the record of Jules Verne's hero who went "Around the World in Eighty Days," she became an international heroine, racing around the globe and completing the trip in 72 days, 6 hours, and 10 minutes.

NORTH, STERLING. *Abe Lincoln, Log Cabin to White House.* New York 22: Random House. 1956. 190 pp. \$1.50. There were river pirates on the untamed Mississippi. But six-foot-four-inch Abe Lincoln did not fear them. Twice he took flatboats down the treacherous, winding river to New Orleans. One night Abe and his friend Allen Gentry had to fight for their lives against seven men who came aboard hoping to kill and rob them.

For the most part, however, Abe was a gentle, kindly, and humorous boy. He was the best wrestler in many miles, told the funniest stories, and thought the deepest thoughts. He would walk miles to borrow a book; and he read every newspaper on which he could lay his big, gnarled work-hardened hands. He was proud to be elected captain of his volunteer company in the Black Hawk War. Back home again in New Salem, he opened a little store which soon "winked out," leaving him deeply in debt. Then he taught himself surveying, served as village postmaster, read law, and was four times elected to the Illinois state legislature. This biography tells the story of Lincoln's boyhood and young manhood on the midwestern frontier. It shows him growing steadily toward becoming the great and humane President of the Civil War years.

NORTEN, R. T. *Orchids as House Plants.* Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc. 1955. 128 pp. \$3.50. The popular new house-plant is the orchid. Most spectacular of all flowers, it can be grown in the home as easily as African violets, gloxinias, and the other commoner house flowers. No glass, no elaborate equipment is necessary. This book contains the exact details of home culture and propagation—information that will enable one at low cost to fill his home with magnificent blooms and healthy plants.

The lure of the orchid, found in nature not only in tropical rain forests and jungles, but in many other kinds of terrain has attracted gardeners for centuries. In variety of form, size and range of colors, it has had no equals. Its method of growth was for long a botanical mystery, nourished, as many orchids are, only by rain and air. Hot-house culture was once considered essential, and it was a flower for the affluent only. Now modern research has produced spectacular hybrids suited to ordinary living quarters, and the culture of some of the finest natural varieties has been simplified to the point where plants can be found for hot rooms or cool, sunlight or deep shade.

O'CONNOR, PATRICK. *The Black Tiger*. New York 3: Ives Washburn, Inc., Publishers. 1956. 158 pp. \$2.75. The element of fear and how men overcome it is the theme of this story of sports-car racing on the California tracks. Here are the glory, the heartbreaks, the painstaking checking of each part of the car when a slight mistake can mean death, and the colorful people who spend their lives in the world of sports-car racing. Its gripping suspense not only depends upon the outcome of several actual races, but also stems from the very human problems connected with the sport.

Woody Hartford, teenage sports-car racing fan, after helping in the pit during two races in which the magnificent Black Tiger mysteriously cracks up, is offered a chance to drive it in the big race. His love for the sport and his respect for the owner, who had tried to prove the Black Tiger was an exceptionally fine new model, are balanced in his mind by the car's reputation as a "killer." How Woody works it out is the climax of an exciting story that will ring true with every reader.

OLFSON, LEWY. *Radio Plays of Famous Stories*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1956. 256 pp. \$3.75. Fifteen classic stories are dramatized in this collection of royalty free scripts for half-hour radio broadcasts. Selected from Junior and Senior High School reading lists, the stories dramatized include such masterpieces as *Wuthering Heights*, *Silas Marner*, *Jane Eyre*, *The House of the Seven Gables*, and *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court*. The spirit of the original narratives has been faithfully maintained in these adaptations. Tom Sawyer, Cyrano de Bergerac, Quentin Durward, Monsieur Beaucarie, and David Copperfield will work their magic once again on the imagination of the young people who meet them through these lively scripts.

With the new interest in educational radio, the number of air-hours available to schools throughout the country is increasing and this book provides high-quality scripts for young people to use. Suggestions for radio production are given in a "Radio Workshop" at the back of the book. Advice is offered to actors on speech requirements for the microphone, to sound technicians on simple ways of achieving effects, and to directors on co-ordinating a production. Also included is a glossary of terms commonly used in radio scripts.

Technical radio requirements have been kept to a minimum in these scripts so that the plays may be produced satisfactorily in other ways also; over public address systems, on tape recordings, before an audience with the actors reading their lines around a dummy microphone, or in the classroom for oral reading practice in connection with the study of great literature. Teachers and other youth leaders will welcome this book as a rich source of entertaining dramas which teenagers will enjoy reading and producing.

O'NEAL, COTHURN. *The Very Young Mrs. Poe*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1956. 253 pp. \$3.50. When Edgar Allan Poe first met his cousin

Virginia Clem, she was still half a child who called herself "Annabel Lee" and played with dolls. "Don't let me love you, Sissy," he whispered. "Whatever I love withers and dies before its time." But by the age of thirteen, Sissy did love him. His prospects were poor. He had been expelled from West Point, and frustration as a writer was turning him toward melancholia. They moved to Richmond, where Poe became assistant editor of the *Southern Literary Messenger*. He married Sissy (her age falsified) and plunged into work.

The first years brought unhappiness and scandal. Poe was discharged. (People said he drank, but only Sissy knew the secret fear that caused his torment.) "In a wife I have found perfection; in wordly goods, nothing." They started anew, in New York. His reputation as a writer climbed, and in Philadelphia he built *Graham's Magazine* up to 50,000, then an unprecedented circulation for a monthly. In January 1845 came *The Raven*, which had the greatest immediate acclaim of any poem ever published in America. But the life together of Poe and his child-bride, like the stories and poems he created, was to end in a strange and tragic way.

PARADISE, JEAN. *The Savage City*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1955. 319 pp. \$3.95. This is a story of New York in 1741 and one of the strangest and most dramatic episodes in American history, comparable only to the Salem Witch Trials. England was at war with Spain, and for many months the city and its people were panic-stricken with fear, savage with hatred again "the plotters," who were believed to be planning to set the city afire and prepare the way for the Spanish to capture it.

This book centers around Richard Tucker, a man with two lives. An aristocrat, he is engaged to Johanna, daughter of a leading provincial lawyer. But cutting across this upper-class life is the fateful discovery that he is the illegitimate son of a servant girl. Driven by this knowledge, he is led into an affair with Sarah Hughson, a tavern keeper's daughter, and through her, into the company of thieves and slaves.

His dual life involves him in sudden, flaming struggle. An indentured girl suddenly "reveals" a plot, directed from the Hughson tavern, to burn the city so that the Spaniards can stride, presumably up from Cuba, and take it by default. First claves, then papists, then citizens in general are accused as mass hysteria sweeps the "savage city." As hundreds are jailed and scores of white people and Negroes are hanged or burned at the stake, Richard has to fight for Sarah's life, for Johanna, and for the safety of the city itself. No one is beyond the reach of the accusers, and as the excesses mount to a climax, Richard and Johanna and some of the older men like John Roosevelt appeal to the last remnants of sanity.

PATCHETT, M. E. *Flight to the Misty Planet*. Indianapolis 7: The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1954. 236 pp. \$2.75. In this year of 1999 the Shenandoah has set her course toward Venus. Steve Strong and Nick Pentland, who have nearly completed their training, are assigned to explore this planet, the newest to come into Earth's sphere of influence. The boys will take off from the training ship on "boomerang flights" in a small rocket, to survey the surface and fill in blanks on the sketchy, radar-plotted map of Venus. They are to begin by practicing atmospheric gliding and braking over the mysterious planet. As the Shenandoah moves into a tight, closed orbit around Venus the boys look down on a world a little smaller than their own, a world which has never come closer than 25,000,000 miles to Earth. This is their destination. Soon they will pene-

trate the thick mist that hides the planet. They hear the familiar take-off signal—"In your own time—away!" Nick presses the starter button, the motors fire, the magnetic clamp holding their rocket to the spaceship disengages automatically, and the boys are dropping Venus-ward. Its cloud blanket, dazzling white in the sunlight, rushes up to meet them. Steadily losing speed and height, they are soon through the carbonisphere.

PEALE, N. V. *Inspiring Messages for Daily Living*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1955. 224 pp. \$2.95. Dr. Peale has been consulted by thousands of men and women for more than 30 years on just such problems as these. He has advised them in personal meetings. He has learned the kind of help they need. Out of the wealth of this experience, he has developed a series of remarkable techniques and formulas for meeting trouble and overcoming it. In this book, he passes on those methods for solving problems and helps you to live a more rewarding, more satisfying life. This book gives practical advice on every single page—in the 18 lessons for better living contained in the *Self-Improvement Handbook*; in the 14 chapters under the heading "What's Your Trouble?"; in the section called *You Can Relax*; and in the series of "How Cards" designed for ready reference at all times.

PEARL, R. M. *Rocks and Minerals*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc. 1956. 287 pp. \$1.95. This book is intended to present in popular language for the general reader the most recent accurate knowledge about the entire range of the mineral kingdom, a subject of ever-growing significance in this second half of the twentieth century. It covers minerals and rocks, ores and metals, gems, crystals, and meteorites, as well as artificial minerals—from their origin and world-wide occurrence to their current industrial uses.

The book explains how rocks and minerals are classified, how they can be recognized and identified, and how they should be collected and displayed. Radio-active minerals are emphasized, befitting their strategic importance in today's peacetime economy and international tension. Fluorescent minerals, another area of outstanding interest, are also given special treatment, as are meteorites, which are yet the only tangible evidence of the outer space into which man is just beginning to venture. Prospecting for uranium and other minerals is described, together with the methods of mining them.

Italics emphasize essential scientific terms when they are first presented in the text. A selected, annotated reading list is given, along with a list of the national magazines in the United States devoted to the mineral-collecting hobby. A glossary and a classified index are other features of this book. The photographs and drawings are well chosen to illustrate the text.

PELLEGRINI, ANGELO. *Americans by Choice*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 248 pp. \$3.50. In the early years of this century, millions of Italians uprooted themselves from their native villages and cities and came to America. Their passage across the Atlantic was a flight from poverty and serfdom to freedom—a voyage which required youth, courage, and imagination. Angelo Pellegrini, himself the son of an Italian immigrant, tells here the moving story of six of those who left their home for the promise of an unknown land.

Four of the six are still living; two are old; and two are still striving to shape their freedom to their dream of what life should be. *La Bimbina* is a portrait of the author's mother, who settled in the Northwest and was beloved for her goodness and zest for life. *Celestino* is the story of a smooth-spoken rogue who

swindled other immigrants and now ekes out a living in any way he can. Louis Martini is one of California's greatest winegrowers. Guido Sella rose to riches by bootlegging. Leonardo died when he was 75, a successful small contractor who spent his life in honest toil with pick and shovel. Rosa Mondavi is the wife of another Italian winegrower and is also one of California's great cooks.

They were all Americans by choice and not by the accident of birth. America received them, worked them hard, and gave them the means to carve out their future. In this warm and thoughtful book, we learn why they came, why some were successful, why some failed, and most important of all, how those who succeeded gave something in exchange to our American way of life—the knowledge of what work means and the full appreciation of freedom.

PERRY, JOHN. *The Story of Standards*. New York 10: Funk and Wagnalls Company. 1955. 283 pp. \$5. This book is a lively history of the centuries-old fight that kings, presidents, scientists, businessmen, and consumers have waged for scientific standards—to win a single “foot” that all the world would recognize. The story of their struggle is also the story of modern science, in which measurement is a fundamental tool of observation and discovery, and of modern industry, in which standards are prerequisite to systematic research and mass production.

The evolution of standards began in ancient history, when the Ptolemy's, Caesar, and other rulers tried to set standards—and failed. It continued into the early years of the United States, when the framers of the Constitution tried to get Congress to set standards—and failed. Then the French Revolution produced the metric system, and scientists themselves began to change measurement from an art into science because precise standards were needed for new tools and units of measurement. But the author points out that, surprisingly, standards are not altogether “standard” even yet. For example, British and American inches still differ by a small but annoying amount, and inaccurate measuring cups are bought every day.

The Story of Standards is told from the vantage point of the National Bureau of Standards, at Washington, D. C., because the work of the Bureau is inseparable from the growth of American science and industry. Here is a full account of the Bureau's work, and of its profound but little-known effects on every area of American life. Bureau scientists are not only originators and custodians of standards, but also pioneers in fundamental research. They helped create the atomic bomb, the proximity fuze, and the guided missile; and they have contributed inventions and improvements in tires, stockings, bridges and highways, electric wiring, camera lenses—hundreds of everyday, indispensable products. Today, at the beginning of the “second industrial revolution”—the era of atomics, electronics, and automation—scientific standards are more important than ever before. The aim of this book is to show that they are important not only to scientists and businessmen, but also to everyone interested in the growth of civilization and in the taken-for-granted details of his own daily life.

POHL, FREDERIK. *Alternating Currents*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1956. 154 pp. Paperbound edition, 35c; hardbound edition, \$2. Ten stories of the future by the co-author of *The Space Merchants* and *Gladiator-at-Law*.

POPE, EDWIN. *Football's Greatest Coaches*. Atlanta: Tupper and Love, Inc., 1090 Capitol Ave. 1955. 348 pp. \$3.95. Here, in a single book, is

presented a panorama of the men who have built modern football. The 28 men whose lives are here detailed were chosen by the actual vote of more than 50 of the nation's top sports editors and columnists. Their ballots result in a range of great teachers of all college football from Amos Alonzo Stagg, who was born in the year of the Emancipation Proclamation and coached for three-quarters of a century, to brilliant young moderns like Bud Wilkinson of Oklahoma and Jim Tatum of Maryland. In between are the best from every era.

PRICE, OLIVE. *The Blue Harbor*. New York 3: Ives Washburn, Inc., Publishers. 1956. 186 pp. \$2.75. When Sandy Burroughs arrived in Provincetown to spend the summer on Cape God, she looked forward eagerly to the activities of a Cape summer and the opportunity to practice stage costume design, her chosen career. However, she didn't know she would meet Dennis Gaines, a student at the Oceanographic Institute in Woods Hole, who saw no place in his busy and dedicated life for a girl who had been a very popular prom queen in high school. Though Sandy hadn't been at all sure she wanted to take her high-school date, Paul, too seriously, soon after seeing tall, good-looking, and interesting Dennis she knew she had fallen in love for keeps. Her problem, then, was to get Dennis thinking along the same lines.

PRICE, ROGER. *In One Head and Out the Other*. New York 18: Ballantine Books. 1956. 156 pp. 35c. An explanation of the philosophy of avoidism and the history of the movement.

RANDALL, R. P. *Lincoln's Sons*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Company. 1955. 391 pp. \$5. Abraham Lincoln had four sons, and here is their story. They have, of course been mentioned in previous Lincoln biographies, but the sons have always been overshadowed by the towering figure of their father. Now the author has turned the spotlight on them, so that we see Mary and Abraham Lincoln only as reflected in the lives of their children. With insight and humor, the author presents each of the sons, and in the process casts light on rarely seen aspects of their parents—Mrs. Lincoln's passionate maternity; Mr. Lincoln's boundless affection for his children.

Eddie is necessarily glimpsed only briefly; he died in Springfield at the age of four. Then there was Willie, standing on the steps of the Springfield house shouting at passers-by to "Vote for Old Abe!" Willie was "the sort of child people imagine their children will be, before they have any." His death, in the darkest days of the Civil War, was a tragic blow to the Lincolns. There was the long trip to Washington, D. C., in 1861 when Robert lost his father's inaugural address, and Tad spent his time wandering up to onlookers to ask, "Do you want to see Old Abe?" At which point he would lead them to some unsuspecting stranger and race off in triumph.

During the crucial years of the Civil War, Tad became famous as the White House prankster who, after discovering the center of the bell system, more than once brought secretaries John Nicolay and John Hay to Mr. Lincoln's office with visions of national emergency or presidential wrath. Here, however, we also see Tad in his less carefree years after Willie's death and his father's assassination.

RATH, I. E. *The Year of Charles*. San Antonio 6: The Naylor Company. 1955. 226 pp. \$3. This is the story of a year in the life of Frankie Poorbaugh—nine, but "old for her years." Brighteyed, knowing, and alert to life, she found adventure, happiness, romance, and heartache in the placid-seeming small town in Kansas where her family weathered a depression of the mid-1890's. To fill her

days, there was school, home, the changing seasons, her own cherry tree in the orchard, two horses, cow and pig, and the mill. But most of all, there was Charles.

Though Charles was twelve, he was in the same grade at school as Frankie, because he had been all a few years before. The other students soon nicknamed him "The Judge." Quiet, sober, thoughtful, he always dressed in what the other children would have considered Sunday clothes. He was the son of the manager of the mill in Burrton. Charles and Frankie were drawn to each other, though there were girls in the school prettier than Frankie who had thought Charles was "just perfect." For Frankie, it was her first love. The author skillfully tells the story of this awakening of love. Frankie is a wonderful and very human little heroine, and all teenagers can find guidance in her story.

RAWLINS, G. M., and A. H. STRUBLE. *Chemistry in Action*, third edition. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1956. 599 pp. \$4.40. This new edition is modern in theory and includes significant applications of the latest developments in chemical research, such as synthetic textiles, new elements, new insecticides, silicones, sulfa drugs, antibiotics, the hydrogen bomb, etc. Teaching helps have been revised and expanded to include a comprehensive film list for each unit, a bibliography, and additional problems and questions. This third edition is new in appearance—completely redesigned and reset. Throughout the book, color is used not only to please the eye, but also as a teaching device for emphasis in the drawings and to mark special sections. Here one finds a broad coverage of chemistry, clarity and simplicity of writing, and a logical organization designed to fit any standard high-school course of study. It is a teachable and colorful textbook accompanied by a complete *Laboratory Manual* (Chemistry in Action in the Laboratory, third edition, 288 pp. \$1.60) with key, functional tests (Forms A and B, third edition, 24 pp. each, 28c each) with keys, and a practical *Teacher's Handbook* (third edition, 122 pp. 60c).

RICH, JOSEPHINE. *Jean Henri Dunant*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 190 pp. \$2.95. On a hill above the blood-drenched battlefield of Solferino, Jean Henri Dunant was inspired to his life work—the formation of the International Red Cross. Forty-two years later, ill and virtually penniless, he received the first Nobel Prize for Peace. Even as a boy in Geneva, Switzerland, Henri blazed with determination to better the world. His chances came when he sought an interview with Napoleon III to obtain water rights for his corn mills. France and Sardinia were at war with Austria, and, to reach Napoleon, Henri had to travel through battle areas. But when he came to Solferino, he forgot all about business. Below him spread a scene of terrible carnage—more than forty thousand dead and wounded reddened the hillsides.

Frantic to ease suffering, Henri followed a stretcher bearer into fields where wounded men pleaded for help. In nearby villages he roused women and children to bring cloth for bandages, medicines, food, water. By morning his volunteer nurses were caring for fifteen thousand wounded. When a French soldier rebuked him for aiding an Austrian enemy, Henri's rage boiled up. "All men are brothers!" he said. That phrase marked a new concept in war relations. Imagine—helping the enemy wounded!

But Henri imagined far more—an agreement among all nations to ease the horrors of war. His idea spread like wildfire and a dynamic Swiss lawyer, Gustav Moynier, helped to organize the dream into reality. Sixteen countries sent delegates to Geneva, forming a volunteer society to aid the war-wounded,

to guarantee humane treatment of prisoners, to provide medical care and supplies. The Swiss flag, with colors reversed, became their emblem—and the International Red Cross was established.

RIDDLESBARGER, ADA, and NELL STILLWAGON. *Easy English Exercises*, new edition. Yonkers 5: World Book Company. 1956. 320 pp. This book is a concise and comprehensive book on the fundamentals of English grammar. This new edition retains the basic subject matter that so many teachers have endorsed. Details and emphases have been adapted to recent educational trends and to current English usage.

The book furnishes a thorough course in the basic concepts of grammar that are essential not only for speaking and writing well, but also for fully comprehending written or spoken English. The organization is readily adaptable to any learning situation. The book may be used as a basic text or as supplementary, remedial, or related material in line with various units, projects, or courses of study.

Learning takes place through experience, so the practice material in this book is favorable to the learning process. A principle of grammar on an item of usage cannot be clinched by a single experience, nor even by a few. Many are needed. Matters of grammar or usage, in order to function, must be practiced over and over until they become automatic. There, most of the exercises in this book contain many sentences—enough to make it possible, in emphasizing or reviewing a topic, to go on with new sentences, not back over those already studied.

RIENOW, ROBERT. *American Government in Today's World*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1956. 765 pp. \$4.20. This presents the history, organization, and functions of American government to the high-school student. He learns to consider American citizenship in the framework of the new and world-wide responsibilities of his nation. It is what the people can do with government as citizens that is illuminated fully for the student. It is written for the eleventh and twelfth grades. This new text is designed for a complete year's course. However, this book can easily be adapted to a one-semester course in American government or it can also be correlated with United States history.

The book emphasizes responsible decision-making in a country whose decisions reverberate around the globe. It defines the new spirit of citizenship this changed world demands. Four chapters deal directly with the Constitution and its application. The author explains these laws as a basis for the student's study and inspiration. He states, "We will remember that our world leadership rests on the worth of our individual citizens. It rests on how well each of us carries on his job of being an American citizen—the most responsible and rewarding job in the world." The book stresses the process of government. National, state, and local government have all been included to give a total, true picture of our government in action.

Here are some of the varied topics the author analyzes and reviews: the Articles of Confederation; Federal and state powers; concurrent powers; immigration and its regulations; citizenship; The Bill of Rights; bosses and machines; Australian ballot; lobbies; President's cabinet and staff; basic delegated powers of Congress; committees of Congress; national banking system; antitrust laws; Truman Doctrine; Marshall Plan; Point Four; NATO. This book is so organized that the facts are drawn together, both in content and in graphic form, to help the high-school student develop his own ideas. The logical organiza-

tion is an important recommendation for this text. It makes a text that is workable, easy-to-learn from, and organized to teach from.

There are eight units, each of which is divided into three parts—(a) Introduction; (b) Subject Content; (c) "Following Through" section which includes New Words, Quick Quiz, Points to Ponder, and Project on the Past. Each unit introduction sets the stage for the consideration of various aspects of government. The "Following Through" section at the end of each chapter suggests individual and class study. This includes both oral and written exercises as well as research projects that expand the text material.

Teachers and students alike will appreciate the ready source material at the back of the book: Declaration of Independence; Constitution of the United States of America; Selected Readings from books, pamphlets, and periodicals. There is an index (800 entries and a vast number of sub-entries).

The book is appealing and well-designed throughout. The attractive and modern cover carries the dignity Americans associate with their government. Each text page is arranged with a single column set in a clear and readable type face. A variety of rich black, and white illustrations color and complement the text. There are 272 half-tones, 9 time lines, 31 graphs, 27 charts, 30 tables, and maps that present the facts graphically as well as textually whenever possible. All these illustrations have been reproduced with beauty and distinction and contribute a liveliness that students enjoy.

ROBERTSON, TERENCE. *Night Raider of the Atlantic*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 256 pp. \$4. Of the fleet of 56 German U-Boats on the seas in April 1940, the most dangerous was the U-99, commanded by Otto Kretschmer. Called by the British the most efficient and the most competent U-Boat commander in the German Navy, 28-year-old Kretschmer was a ruthless and daring officer who, before his capture by the British in 1941, had sunk 55 Allied ships (350,000 tons) to become Germany's foremost U-boat ace.

This is the thrilling story of his many exploits—most of which achieved success because of his revolutionary system of attack. Instead of submerging to periscope depth and firing a fan of torpedoes, according to the orthodox method, Kretschmer surfaced, then entered the heart of the convoy, and sank each victim with a single torpedo. He only submerged when he himself was attacked. Operating according to an old fashioned code, Kretschmer was gallant to his victims, giving them plenty of time to get away from their stricken ship, and then offering the survivors brandy and blankets, or, on one occasion, actual sanctuary before he fired the final, crippling shot.

Kretschmer was the epitome of the "Old School" German officer, and his exploits continued after his capture. His deeds in prison camp in Scotland (where he took part in a "Council of Honor" trial of a fellow officer), and in Canada (where he daringly hoodwinked the Canadians and sent valuable information concerning Allied shipping to Doenitz) are no less exciting than his U-boat experiences.

Kretschmer easily survived the denunciation of a fellow officer at the German war trials (one that proved to be completely false, for Kretschmer lived by a rigid code of honor) and is slated for a top position in the new German Navy. He is a hero to his own country, the recipient of the German equivalent of our Congressional Medal of Honor. His story, written by an English newspaper man, is a classic of action and daring on the high seas.

RUTLAND, R. A. *The Birth of the Bill of Rights, 1776-1791*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press. 1955. 253 pp. \$5. The great phrases of the Bill of Rights, with their powerful historical allusiveness, have served as a constant reminder of the liberty under law that men may achieve. This is a detailed historical account of the process whereby the Bill of Rights became the first ten amendments of the Federal Constitution.

The author shows how the English common law, colonial charters and legislative enactments, and a variety of events in colonial history were the chief elements contributing to the *rationale* for a Bill of Rights. With the opening of the American Revolution, and following the Virginia Declaration of Rights, the American reliance upon written codes that assured personal freedom became engrained in the thinking of many Revolutionary leaders. As the new states came to write their first constitution, in many cases they wrote Bills of Rights into their organic law.

The author's book devotes most of its attention and reaches its climax in the fight to incorporate a Bill of Rights into the Federal Constitution—surely one of the most important political battles in our history. It was precipitated by the failure of the Constitutional Convention to include a Bill of Rights in the proposed document, and it developed into popular agitation throughout the states, political maneuvers by the Federalist and anti-Federalist leaders, and a deadlock that jeopardized the Constitution itself. It was largely the practical genius of Madison that led to the compromise whereby the Constitution was accepted on the condition that the Bill of Rights become the first ten amendments. In the final chapter of this study of the birth of a great American statement of principle, the author has written a summary account of the role of the Bill of Rights in subsequent American history.

SAMUEL, RAY; L. V. HUBER; and W. C. OGDEN. *Tales of the Mississippi*. New York 22: Hastings House Publishers. 1955. 256 pp. (8½" 11"). \$7.50. An exciting panorama of life on the Mississippi, from its discovery by De Soto down to the present day, is unrolled in all its vivid colors of comedy and romance in this handsome volume. In swift-moving, rollicking tales and magnificent pictures—many of them contemporary and never before published—there unfolds a kaeidoscopic parade of fabulous characters who lived, brawled, wrought mightily, and died along the great river.

Here are the flat- and kee-boat men—tough, lusty, and uproarious—who would fight at the drop of a chaw of tobacco. Here is the fabulous Mike Fink who emulated William Tell in his marksmanship—but with tragic results. And the story of the gentleman from the East who wanted in on the fight at the wicked little town of Napoleon—only to emerge very much worse for wear.

Portrayed, too, are the reckless captains and engineers of the incredibly baroque "mistresses" of the river—ready to risk their steamboats, and their passengers, to win a race or merely to chalk up a record. Hence, the countless disasters (pictured as they actually happened) on the river boats, few of which were able to survive to reach the junk pile. The pickaninny perched on the steamboat's safety valve may be fictitious; but it is of record that one engineer hung heavy wrenches on his valve to prevent the easing up of dangerous steam pressure—his boat, of course, blew up. Another engineer swore he would make St. Louis on schedule or bust; he did—bust. So the steamboats exploded regularly, or went up in flames, snagged or ran into sandbars—and incontinently sank. Here are eye-witness accounts and contemporary pictures of the terrible

demise of the *Ben Sherrod*, and of the worst tragedy of all, that of the *Sultana* which cost 1,500 lives. But the speed mania never abated one whit.

The little-known, tough women pilots and captains are all here in a full galaxy of stories, as are the famous gamblers, touts, brawlers, duellists, and pirates who infested the great waterway. Pictures and quotes of contemporary reports tell also the stories of the great crevasses letting the flood waters spill over the countryside, including New Orleans, which at times turned into a temporary Venice with the inhabitants traveling around in rowboats. Pictured, too, are the fake Gothic splendors of the great steamboats, their gorgeous interiors punctuated by rows of gilded spittoons.

And there are exciting accounts of the river aflame during the War-between-the-States, when Farragut damned the torpedoes and the future hero of Manila Bay, George Dewey, was blown up and landed in the river. It was at this time that the underground letter-carriers plied their dangerous trade.

SAYRE, J. W., and L. J. ALILUNAS. *Youth Faces American Citizenship*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 608 pp. This book is organized around ten units with twenty-five chapters. Studies have shown that high school students are interested in many things. They are interested in themselves, in the present, in the future, in the past—roughly in that order. The unit and chapter organizations build on these interests. Unit 1 sets the stage by presenting the basic problem, the development of good citizens in our democracy. The chapters of this unit deal with matters that are part of the lives of adolescents. But they also look to the future and to the past. Unit 2 is concerned with the critical personal problems which youth face: getting along with others, finding a job, falling in love, getting married, and raising a family. Units 3 and 4 are concerned with those matters in which economics plays the more prominent part: housing, buymanship, free enterprise, labor, management, and farming. Unit 5 brings together some needed information on how groups get along in a free governmental system. Races, religion, nationalities, social classes, and the place of education are discussed in the light of the best scholarship of our day. Unit 6 considers matters that are personal, yet community-wide in nature: mental and physical health, leisure, delinquency, and crime. Units 7, 8, and 9 present the background for those problems that are chiefly governmental, both national and international. Unit 10 ties all these matters together and provides the bridge for an active life of good citizenship.

The aids at the end of the chapters have been carefully designed. "What do you think about this situation?" is a unique device for immediately focusing learning on an actual situation. Background information is thus regularly applied to civic action. The study questions aid students of all abilities to get the best from the text material. The ideas for activities provide opportunities for students of varied abilities and interests. The reading selections have been chosen because of their viewpoints, their availability, and their general interest. Study, investigation, discussion are encouraged through these learning aids.

SCHAEFER, JACK. *The Pioneers*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, Inc. 1956. 199 pp. 35c. A collection of the author's stories of the American West.

SCHNEIDER, LEO. *You and Your Senses*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 143 pp. \$2.75. Seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, and touching—these are the five means you have of finding out what is going on around you. You have used most of these from the moment you were born, but

have you ever really understood how your senses work? How do your eyes see or your ears hear, for instance? The author explains how the five senses report on the world around us. In talking about sight, for example, he describes the various parts of the eye and how they transform light waves into nerve impulses. He explains such things as what causes people to be color-blind or near-sighted; how a camera resembles the eye; and, with the help of "moving" drawings, how motion pictures work. Similar information is given on all the senses including the important inner ones of hunger and thirst. Finally, there is a chapter on the center of all this activity, the brain. Throughout, the basic principles and interesting sidelights are presented in a logical fashion, with numerous diagrams and drawings by Gustav Schrotter.

SCHOONOVER, LAWRENCE. *The Queen's Cross*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates. 1955. 377 pp. \$3.95. In Queen Isabella of Spain, the author has found his perfect heroine. Known as Isabella the Catholic, she was in many ways the Spanish Joan of Arc, and was unquestionably one of the great queens in all European history. A passionate and beautiful woman—a devoted wife who forgave when she could not forget—a loving mother—Isabella was at the same time a strong administrator and a military genius.

The author brings Isabella to life in all her glory, with a host of intriguing people in her retinue including the handsome, brave, but philandering Ferdinand, whose weakness Isabella nobly tried to hide from the world by giving him credit where none was due; the scheming, unscrupulous Queen Juana, who attempted to palm off her bastard child as the Infanta, in spite of her husband's nickname—Henry the Impotent; Torquemada, Isabella's early tutor and later Spain's Grand Inquisitor, the man who aroused her interest in a world wider than Europe, a world which one day might be circled by men in ships; the sickly heir-apparent, Alfonso, whose death affected Spain's future far more than his own life, for it left the way open for Isabella's accession to the crown.

Here is the pulse-quickenning flavor of the ancient Spanish cities—Barcelona, Seville, Granada, Sante Fe. Here is color and pageantry, violence and intrigue, passion and brutality. But above all, here is Isabella—a great queen who subordinated her personal sorrows and disappointments to a greater cause—the woman who wrested Granada from the Moorish hold of seven centuries and thereby filled out the map of modern Spain—the woman who grasped the significance of Columbus' ambitious project after most of the courts of Europe had turned him down—the woman who became a queen to capture the imagination of all the Western world.

SELL, H. B., and WEYBRIGHT, Victor. *Buffalo Bill and the Wild West*. New York 11: Oxford University Press. 1955. 288 pp (7½" x 10¼"). \$6.95. William F. Cody, the last of the great scouts, "master horseman, more picturesque and perfect than Alexander on Bucephalus," as Nate Salsbury billed him, rides again in this first pictorial biography. In fast-moving narrative, the authors tell of the fantastic rise and slow decline of Buffalo Bill, who was suddenly thrust into the limelight by his buffalo hunts, became a folk hero as an Indian fighter, and then began a forty-year career as super showman. The book recaptures the life and times of a colorful hero who fixed forever the image of the Wild West in the mind of the world.

Buffalo Bill's youth and life on the plains, his adventures with the Indians, the Pony Express, the bison herds, the railroads, all led to his emergence as a conspicuous gentleman scout. Later, when he became an international show-

man, he carried the West to the world. All America once knew the Buffalo Bill of the plains, but the showmanship story has never been so fully told before. At its height his Wild West Show has a cast of over 500 and toured not only the United States, where he played in Chicago in 1893 to 6,000,000 people, but in England and Europe as well. When he took the show to England in the year of Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee, and played command performances at Windsor Castle, the company included cowboys, Indians, Mexican vaqueros, buffalo, broncos, and the Deadwood stage coach.

The magic of Buffalo Bill's personality and the tone he set made him the darling of an era. This is the human story of his ups and downs, his family life and his relations with others, including Sheridan, Sitting Bull, Custer, Queen Victoria, Annie Oakley and Frank Butler, Teddy Roosevelt, the Kaiser, Yellow Hand, Ned Buntline, and Nate Salsbury. The book is lavishly illustrated with a four-color frontispiece, 137 halftones, and 39 line-cuts.

SHAPIRO, LIONEL. *The Sixth of June*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company. 1955. 351 pp. \$3.95. This book tells the story of Brad Parker, heir apparent to a Connecticut newspaper empire, who went overseas owing his loyalty and his love to his wife, Jane. It tells the story, too, of Valerie Russell—beautiful, compassionate, war-weary—who owed her loyalty to a brave Englishman. Brad and Valerie fell deeply, helplessly in love. In the sight of each other, their primary loyalties fell away. But, certain as they were of their love—and that it could overcome every obstacle, every loyalty—they reckoned without the emotional miracle that took place on the sixth of June.

SHILS, E. A. *The Torment of Secrecy*. Glencoe: The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois. 1956. 243 pp. \$3.50. This book is not the torment of the individual caught up in security-loyalty procedures, it is the torment of the accuser and judge as well. It permeates our civil and intellectual life, and challenges constitutional government and the traditional rule of law. The author examines the small, genuinely valid elements in present-day preoccupation with espionage, subversion, and sabotage. He assesses the magnitude of such threats, and contrasts it to the vast amount of ill-directed agitation legislative, and administrative which has been so widely directed against this misconceived threat.

The book studies the contemporary and historical background of the furor of the past ten years, and traces its origins to the strains of the post-war years, against the context of the persistent isolationism and xenophobia so deeply rooted in American life. It singles out these elements which are inimicable to the ethos of a free America. These are: the mutual distrust of intellectuals and politicians; the resentment of the politicians over the increased power of the bureaucracy; the interplay of nativism and grass roots populism with the melodramatic character of the mass communication media; and the insecurities of politicians.

The actual efficiency of security-loyalty measures is considered and their consequences for foreign policy are noted. In its conclusion the book considers those counterforces which might establish a more reasonable atmosphere and a more realistic policy. It presents a series of specific recommendations for our security-loyalty program.

SHOR, JEAN BOWE. *After You, Marco Polo*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1956. 304 pp. \$4.50. This is the story of a fabulous trip. France and Jean Shor, a young American couple, set out in the mid-twentieth century to follow the seven-century-old trail of Marco Polo from Venice to

Peiping. Polo's route lies in a no man's land along the boundaries of Turkey, Iran, Russia, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and China. Only a handful of Westerners have crossed these high passes and unexplored valleys since Polo's time. Border skirmishes are frequent, strangers are automatically assumed to be enemies.

The Shors' adventures matched in fascination and variety those of Marco Polo. They picnicked with the Shah of Iran. The King of Afghanistan personally gave them permission to cross the forbidden and forbidding Wakhan Corridor. They trekked across the Gobi Desert where they found Genghis Khan's grave. They crossed deserts and mountain ranges, and were entertained by the great and the savage.

Jean was kidnapped by the Chinese Communists. France contracted a deadly fever in the snowbound High Pamirs. One of their "trusted" guides turned out to be a bandit and murderer. They drove off wolves at night with flash bulbs; they slept in their clothes during sand- and snowstorms; they traveled by ancient bus, horse, yak, and on foot. Ultimately, tribal warfare blocked their route across the high passes of the Wakhan Corridor in wildest Afghanistan. Unable to cross the Chinese border, ill and hungry, they literally staggered into the fabled peace and beauty of the Hunza Valley, the Shangri-La in northern Pakistan.

SIMKIN, COLIN, editor. *A Currier and Ives Treasury*. New York 16: Crown Publishers, Inc. 1955. 32 pp of texts, 80 pp. of pictures (15½" x 12"). \$10. In addition to a six-page foreward and a guide to the collection and care of Currier and Ives prints, the book contains eighty prints in full color. This publication has been made possible through the courtesy of the Travelers Insurance Companies in making available the fine color plates for reproduction. These plates were made from Currier and Ives prints in the Travelers collection and most of them were originally used in the publication of the companies' annual calendar. Among the eighty 10 x 14 inch full-color prints contained in this book are some of the best and rarest of all the prints ever made by Currier and Ives. The selection made by the editor, probably the world's best-known connoisseur of these prints, consists of twenty groups of four each, covering almost all aspects and all periods of the famous lithographers' work: Homes, Farms, Horses, Trains, and Steamboats, Sailing Ships and the Sea, Firemen and Fires, Hunting Scenes, Dogs, Baseball and other Sports, the Frontier, the Prairie, Scenery, and Sentimental Prints. Many of these prints have never before been reproduced in color in any other book. Each print is discussed by the editor. Because these prints are so suitable for framing, guide-lines are printed on the inside edges so that any print may be removed without weakening the binding of the book.

SIMPSON, DOROTHY. *Island in the Bay*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 192 pp. \$2.50. Here is a fast-moving story of a boy's adventures on an isolated island off the coast of Maine. Its characters come to life and will be long remembered as real and interesting people, particularly the hero, sixteen year-old Linn Swenson. Linn is determined to stay on the island he loves and to make a place for himself as a lobsterman among its rugged, independent inhabitants. He faces great difficulty both at home and in his work, and his final triumph is the victory of endurance and hard-won maturity.

Linn's stern and unforgiving grandfather, incapable of sympathy with the boy during his struggles, turns him out of the house; a serious enemy tries to ruin Linn's name and his livelihood. Only the kindness of friends and Linn's

stubborn desire to remain make it possible for him to achieve the respect and confidence of both his grandfather and the island community.

SISSON, C. J. *New Readings in Shakespeare*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press. 1956. Vol. I: "Introduction; The Comedies; Poems" (228 pp.); Vol. II: "The Histories; The Tragedies" (308 pp.). \$8.50 the set. In these two volumes, the author discusses some of the principal suggestions made in recent years for the clarification of difficult and doubtful passages in Shakespeare's text. The survey sprang more directly from the preparation by Professor Sisson of his recent edition of Shakespeare's works. It includes his own proposals for the emendation of such passages, with his reasons for introducing them or for adopting the readings of others, and apart from its intrinsic interest is a helpful supplement to that edition.

The book is principally concerned with sources of errors in transmission from manuscript to print. Particularly interesting are the problems presented by the ambiguities of Elizabethan handwriting. In obscure passages one of Professor Sisson's most powerful instruments is simply writing them out in a secretary script so as to see what possible misreadings could have been made by the compositor. This technique (illustrated in the plates), the evidence of common errors supplied by printed Elizabethan errata slips, and what is known of methods of deletion and interpolation in various kinds of 'copy' provide convincing readings—most often surprisingly conservative, but sometimes bold.

SLOANE, ERIC. *Our Vanishing Landscape*. New York 10: Wilfred Funk, Inc., 153 E. 24th St. 1955. 107 pp. \$3.95. Here is the story of the winding, patient roads under great canopies of trees, leading the traveler from farm to farm; then the farms themselves, sturdily built of fieldstone or the hard, ageless first-growth timber now virtually unobtainable, their unromantic but beautifully functional architecture mingling with earth and sky in graceful lines. Stretching far and wide in all directions were the fences and walls, built less for privacy and exclusiveness than as protectors of, and from, wandering cattle; the old mills and their variously shaped millstones with fascinating "furrows" cut in their surfaces to ensure the proper grind of the cereals and grains put in to their hoppers. Linked in a close economic network of agrarian life were the canals, corduroy roads, and turnpikes; the ingenious and colorful road signs; the great sleds that drew tons of corded wood or broken rock along snow-packed roads in the midst of winter; and, of course, tollgates, water-wheels, icehouses, canal boats, snowplows, and that peculiar antique, the cumbersome but efficient snow-roller which packed road snow into a firm, icy surface for the sleds.

SMITH, D. P.; JR., and L. T. FAGAN. *Mathematics Review Exercises*. New York 11: Ginn and Company. 1956. 352 pp. \$3. This edition covers the latest requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board. It contains problems in the following subjects, recently added to the CEEB test in advanced mathematics—elementary concepts of analytic geometry; limits; and other topics frequently introduced in fourth-year mathematics. It presents a comprehensive array of problems in arithmetic; elementary, intermediate, and advanced algebra; plane and solid geometry; and trigonometry. Over 150 new multiple-choice questions have been added, with additional problems in ratio, proportions and variation, progressions, inequalities, analytic geometry, and limits. Some topics not now listed in the CEEB requirements are included. This book is intended not only to prepare for college and technical school entrance examinations, but also to supply review material and everywhere needed as a supple-

mentary text in high-school mathematics. Four sets of final review problems, covering all present CEEB requirements, conclude this text.

SMITH, V. C., et. al. *Series on Science* published by J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, Pa. 1956. This is a 9-book series with a book for each of the grades from one through nine. The books, illustrated in color, are *Along the Way* (128 pp.), *Under the Sun* (160 pp.), *Around the Clock* (160 pp.), *Across the Land* (224 pp.), *Through the Seasons* (352 pp.), *Beneath the Skies* (352 pp.), *Exploring Modern Science* (367 pp.), *Enjoying Modern Science* (480 pp.), and *Using Modern Science* (668 pp.)

These latter three books of the *Science for Modern Living Series* each develop for the pupil an understanding of his whole environment in terms of underlying scientific principles and of their functional applications to problems of everyday living. In organization, the texts of this series provide for utilizing children's interests to stimulate learning and to solve problems by use of the scientific method. The amount of subject matter in these latter three textbooks is greater than the average amount found in other junior high-school science series. The interesting style, the selected vocabulary, the definition of new terms as they are used, and the graded experiences make possible the use of adequate informational material in the science program.

Content has been selected according to several criteria: (1) the continuing study of syllabi and courses of study; (2) an analysis of current changes in the world resulting from scientific developments; (3) an analysis of needs, maturity levels, and interests of junior high-school-age pupils; and (4) practical testing of new materials in classroom situations.

The informational material is scientific and functional. While it appeals to children because of its inherently interesting nature, the text is not intended to stimulate superficial interests nor unfounded beliefs in interpreting the world of the child. Every effort has been made to develop sound scientific attitudes by example and by providing information and experience needed for scientific thinking. Each book consists of six units. Each unit is comprehensive and based upon some socially functional area of the large field of science. Each unit is introduced by a brief pupil experiment. It consists of one or two chapters. The chapter is introduced by a brief discussion which serves to lead the pupils and teacher into planning co-operatively a number of listed and described experiments, activities, demonstrations, and pupil reports. Pupil-teacher planning and pupil activity are encouraged, but the success of the following material of the chapter does not depend upon such activity.

Each chapter is divided into a number of problems. Each problem is planned to serve as a day's program of work. Text, self-testing exercises, and suitable teacher or pupil demonstrations make up the problem. The self-tests are of properly graded difficulty and require real study on the part of the pupil. Pupils may check their own self-tests. The teacher can assign a daily problem with confidence that the pupil will understand what to do, will be interested in carrying out the assignment, and will have means of measuring his own success in learning.

Each chapter has abundant summarizing and review activities. The brief review of fundamental concepts and the word list for study emphasize major ideas of the chapter. The exercise in thinking is a matching exercise of principles and related ideas. It reviews important ideas while at the same time providing experience in seeing relations. It is useful as a pupil self-test or as a class exer-

cise in understanding the fundamental principles derived from study of the chapter.

Both the recommended motion pictures and filmstrips and the lists of reference books have been carefully selected from the tremendous number available. Every film has been classroom tested and has definite value in contributing to understanding the major problems of the chapter. The illustrations serve three major instructional uses. Arousing interest is one of these. Teaching an understanding of details or processes is accomplished by use of line drawings. Supplementing and enlarging pupil experience is the function of most of the photographs and of many of the drawings.

A constant problem in science education is to meet the needs of pupils in terms of their maturity levels and interests, and still avoid repetition. The authors of this series have attacked this problem by extensive research involving use of objective tests to discover on what grade level the average pupil achieves a degree of mastery required to continue learning. Selection of units in which to utilize detailed information has been made after careful study of child growth, syllabi, and testing materials in classroom use. Units proceed from grade to grade on the basis of complexity of underlying concepts as well as in terms of the child's maturing interests.

SNOW, E. R. *Famous Lighthouses of America*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1955. 328 pp. \$4. There are no more adventurous lives than those led by the men and women who maintain the lonely vigil over the lighthouses that warn mariners along treacherous coastlines. For almost thirty years, the author has been collecting the unique stories of these people, and in this volume he presents the most dramatic of the experiences of American lighthouse keepers and the beacons which they watch.

These tales are as varied as they are unusual. They include murder in a New England lighthouse, a U-Boat attack off Cape Cod, the construction of a light in dangerous waters that attracted world attention, and the collapse of a seagirt tower in a gale. There is a keeper suspected of luring vessels to their destruction by means of vanishing lights, as well as one who had to repel attacks by Indians. The author takes the reader to over one hundred famous American beacons, ranging along the East and West Coasts, the Gulf States, through the Great Lakes and into Alaska, including such names renowned among mariners as Great Duck Island, Minot's Light, Race Rock, Montauk Point, Sandy Hook, Cape Hatteras, Cape Florida, Biloxi Light, Spectacle Reef, Pigeon Point, Tillamook Rock, Cape Flattery, and Cape Saint Elias.

SPEARS, HAROLD, and C. H. LAWSHE. *High-School Journalism*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 464 pp. \$3.88. This book has been prepared as a basic text for high-school journalism and a guide for modern publication work. It begins with the more elementary principles of reporting and moves progressively through the thirty-one chapters to the more intricate aspects of producing school publications. Each chapter represents a three-step study approach to the topic under consideration: (1) a discussion of the basic principles of the subject, (2) ample examples from school publications for reference study, and (3) exercises for the student's application of the principles learned. Throughout, the approach is always—first *study*, then *practice*. The text is, in a sense, a self-directive course of study.

Part I gives the student practice in reporting the various types of stories, such as the news story, the advance, the follow-up, the interview, the feature, the

editorial, the speech report, and the column. The basic rules of good composition are emphasized, and the seventeen chapters of Part I stand as a course in practical composition.

Part II emphasizes the organization, management, and aims of student publications, especially the newspaper. It treats the every-day problems of editing and financing newspapers, yearbooks, and magazines. Advanced study in reporting and writing is also included. The table of contents shows the broad range of these fourteen chapters.

As well as serving the educational development of the student, the text is planned to bring student publications up to a level of maximum service to the school. Critical study and understanding of the daily newspaper is provided through the exercises at the close of each chapter.

Although not intended as a vocational course, this text will enable the student to explore journalism to the helpful extent of knowing whether or not he wishes to continue the study on a professional basis after leaving high school. The instruction given here in journalistic reporting and writing will stand the test of cub reporting in the daily field. In addition to these more technical aspects of newswriting, the book emphasizes and provides for student development in such broader aspects of education as group loyalty, democratic action, co-operative effort, individual responsibility, self-expression, self-direction, and leadership.

SPETTIGUE, DOUGLAS. *The Friendly Force*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1955. 144 pp. \$3. From its formation to the present, the author tells the story of one of the world's most famous police forces—the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. Established originally to bring law and order to the West, the duties of the Force have expanded tremendously. It now performs such varied tasks as looking after the welfare of Eskimos, gathering evidence against dope peddlers, chasing smugglers, conducting rescue operations in the North, and running a scientific crime-investigation laboratory.

The opening chapters tell how, under the name Northwest Mounted Police, the Force was formed in 1873, and describe its stirring exploits in the early days of the West. The author then takes us to the school at Rockcliffe, where recruits, carefully chosen from a wide field of applicants, undergo the rigorous training that will fit them for the strenuous duties to come. The course includes gymnastics, jiu-jitsu, horsemanship, marksmanship, criminal law and the rules of evidence—a formidable total of eighty-five subjects.

We are taken on a tour of the fabulous identification branch in Ottawa, where approximately half a million fingerprints are on file—any one of which may be located in a matter of minutes, thanks to an ingenious system of classification. We visit laboratories where scrapings of blood, samples of hair, or tiny bits of cloth are examined microscopically to provide the evidence that may convict or free a suspect; where bullets are inspected under the comparison microscope to determine whether they were fired from the same gun; where experts can tell what typewriter was used to produce an incriminating letter.

SPILLER, L. R.; FRANKLIN FREY, and DAVID REICHGOTT. *Today's Geometry*, fourth edition. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 333 pp. \$3.28. This new edition features the latest developments in the practical applications of geometry to present-day life. This completely revised text stresses the relationship between geometry and the home, industry, arts, crafts, and science in a way that they are familiar to the student. This book is designed for the student of average ability who will stop his formal education

after high school and for the above-average student who lacks a specific interest in geometry. The text always follows a logically methodical approach. However, the approach is gradual and a new topic is never introduced until the previous one is digested.

This edition is intended for high-school and vocational school courses in plane geometry, applied geometry, and geometric concepts. It is intended to facilitate the student's approach to geometry, to imbue him with an interest in geometry, to sustain that interest, and to illustrate the various application of geometry outside the classroom. *A Teacher's Manual and Key* is available to teachers who adopt this text.

STACY, DONALD. *The God of Channel One*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, Inc. 1956. 188 pp. 35c, paperbound; \$2, hardbound. A novel about a man who became TV's biggest personality.

STEELE, W. O. *Davy Crockett's Earthquake*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 64 pp. \$2.25. Davy goes bear hunting. While on the hunt, there came a monstrous earthquake and Davy lost all his furs, his gear, his cured meat, and his horse. He thought he had lost all, but, when he finds his wife and two sons are safe, he knew he was the luckiest man in creation.

STEFFERUD, ALFRED. *The Wonders of Seeds*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 121 pp. \$2.75. How it happens—how seeds sprout and grow into plants which flower and bear fruit filled with new seeds; how this new seed is scattered and waits, sometimes for hundreds of years, until the right combination of rain, heat, and air causes it in turn to sprout—this is the fascinating story of a simple but life-giving cycle. Small brown apple seeds, forty-pound coconuts, orchid seeds no bigger than a speck of dust—these and all other seeds follow the same cycle. But each kind follows it in a special way, and their ways are as varied and interesting as the world itself. Equally exciting is the story of how man has begun to unravel the mystery of seed growth. Only within the last few generations have scientists known enough about seeds to find means of controlling and changing plant forms. Woven into this book are explanations of the patient work of Mendel, of the development of hybrid corn by Shull, and of how botanists and large seed companies are carrying on further studies.

STEVENSON, D. E. *Amberwell*. New York 16: Rinehart and Company. 1955. 315 pp. \$3.50. When the five Ayrtton children were installed in the nursery at Amberwell, it was already home to them. It had been their grandfather's house, his father's before him, and Ayrttons in an unbroken line had lived in Amberwell for generations. Located in southwest Scotland, in sight and sound of the sea, its gracious gardens cast a magic spell about those who lived in the beautiful house. Roger and Thomas, as boys everywhere do, tried to hide their delight in the magnificent mansion. But when war came to England, it was to Amberwell that they returned whenever possible to take strength from their enduring heritage. It was shy, gentle Nell, their young sister, who took over the management of Amberwell when her two sisters married (one eloped), their father died, and the boys went off to war. All through those painful years, she faithfully and fiercely kept the beautiful place together. When the next generation came along, Amberwell was what it always had been—a place of memories and repose, a monument to those who had lived in it, a symbol to those who now would come to love it.

STOUTENBURG, J. L., JR. *Dictionary of Arts and Crafts*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1956. 269 pp. \$6. Much has been said and written in the past about this field. Here is a book that will unravel many terms that have been used freely in many books about arts and crafts, with little or no explanation. Besides terms that are used in the field to describe an art or craft, the reader will find the names of tools and their uses and many times the history or origin of such tools. Many techniques are also included.

SUTER, RUFUS. *A Gallery of Scientists*. New York 1: Vantage Press. 1955. 132 pp. \$3.00. This vivid gallery of word portraits brings into new perspective the significance of the work of ten great men of science, from Aristotle through the centuries to Hume, Watt, and Kant. Combining a scholarly approach with a fine sense of dramatic values, Mr. Suter has created a fascinating picture of each of these towering figures, not only against the background of their own times, but also with an evaluation of each man's work in the light of what had been done before—and what it meant to the world.

THOMAS, C. K. *Handbook of Speech Improvement*. New York 10: Ronald Press Company. 1956. 143 pp. \$2.75. This book is the result of more than thirty years' experience in helping students to improve their speech. It is designed for those people whose speech lacks accuracy or distinctness, fails to give the impression of a good social background, or suggests the patterns of another language. It does not deal with problems of voice, with such organic difficulties as cleft palate or cerebral palsy, nor with the functional difficulties of stuttering. Those difficulties require different treatment from the difficulties considered in this book.

Language consists of a system of vocal signals. For the system to operate, the signals must be kept distinct. On the theoretical level, this requirement leads to the phonemic principle. On the practical level, in this book, it means that a large number of the exercises provide opportunities for contrasting one sound with others. These contrasts should be well under control before the student practices other exercises for uniformity of sound. The book, however, is not prescriptive in setting up one standard of American pronunciation.

TOCQUEVILLE, ALEXIS. *Democracy in America*. New York 32: Mentor Book. 1956. 320 pp. 50c. A specially edited and abridged edition, by Richard D. Heffner, of the classic study of the American way of life. A Mentor Book.

de TOLEDANO, RALPH. *Nixon*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company. 1956. 188 pp. \$3. From "greenest congressman" to Vice President in six years is the astonishing political history of Richard M. Nixon. In ten years of political life he has repeatedly been the center of violent controversy. The partisan politics which surround each explosive event have made him perhaps the best-known figure in Washington today, with the exception of the President.

Written with Richard Nixon's full co-operation, this account sorts out fact from myth, letting the record and the author's direct observation speak for themselves. Here is a colorful, knowledgeable, and compelling narrative that not only sets the record straight, but also documents it with much hitherto unpublished material on Nixon and on significant events in which he participated. His role in the Hiss Case and in the McCarthy controversy, his contributions to House and Senate deliberations, his election campaigns, his voting record, the 1952 "fund" crisis which could have driven him out of public life—these are discussed fully and forthrightly in the context of our political times.

This is no "authorized" biography or "human-interest" story. It is primarily a study of the man in relation to the events around him, a kind of political reporting in depth. It will not tell you of Nixon's taste in ties, but it will show where he stands on the important issues of the day. In setting out Nixon's philosophy and activities, this book shows why his opponents have labeled him Political Enemy No. 1.

TRUMAN, HARRY S. *Year of Decisions*. Garden City: Doubleday and Company. 1955. 608 pp. \$5. Harry S. Truman was thrust into a job he neither sought nor wanted by a hurried call to the White House. There he received from Mrs. Roosevelt the quiet and shocking announcement of Franklin Delano Roosevelt's death. Two hours later, with little formality or protocol, he was sworn into office. "I had come to see the President," Mr. Truman recalls. "Now, having repeated that simply worded oath, I myself was President."

This volume and Volume Two, *Years of Trial and Hope*, are a record of the former President's tumultuous years in office, his early days in Missouri, and his rise in local and national politics. There are glimpses of his family life, appraisals of world leaders, and disclosures about the background of national and international events. But overshadowing all is the story of the task of bringing a war to an end, of working for an enduring peace, and leading the free world into a new age.

No Chief Executive ever felt heir to such a tremendous burden on such short notice. The immediate problems were how to end the war in Europe and how to shift vast armies to the Pacific without allowing England or France to feel "abandoned." In addition, there were the uncompleted arrangements for the forthcoming United Nations Conference in San Francisco; an impending interview with Molotov; the problem of striking labor unions; and the disturbing national tendency to let up with half a war yet to be won. And there was the most dreadful and immense decision of all—whether or not to drop the atomic bomb.

TURNGREN, ELLEN. *Listen, My Heart*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1956. 202 pp. \$3. The wind pushed at Sigrid and her father standing so firm on the Minnesota earth. Sigrid dreams she will travel and sing. First comes education—interrupted now and again by the needs of the farm. Free is the only way to be, Sigrid agrees with father. They both enjoy the gaiety in the tumbledown neighbor house where flowers grow as they please. Yet to have roots like mother, to walk safe and sure is good too. The two ways—that of her father and that of her mother—have pulled at her from the beginning.

There are other problems. Handsome Walter goes to amusing lodges to do as he pleases. How can she make him like her? Eric has abandoned the little flowery house, now his laughing mother is gone. How can Sigrid bring him back where he belongs? One Fourth of July when Sigrid and her father both try for happiness, he is injured in an accident. Sigrid is glad to have work, for she is deeply troubled. Why should the whole burden of the farm fall on her? Is not sister Amanda the good one, brother Victor the strong? Sigrid has love, the great gift, love of her father, or her mother. Suddenly when the farm no longer needs her, what does she find? Freedom is in the heart.

TYLER, POYNTZ, editor. *Immigration and the United States*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Company. 1956. 201 pp. \$2. The President's recent recommendation to Congress that immigration quotas be increased to admit 220,000 aliens a year, and the well-publicized controversy over the McCarran-Walter

Immigration Act have helped focus attention on the clamor for new immigration laws. To explain the sociological and diplomatic reasons behind this need, the Reference Shelf Series has just added this new book. It reprints some 29 speeches and articles under these four main headings, each of which is preceded by a descriptive introduction: historical background, the makings of America, the McCarran-Walter Act, and the outlook.

The authors include Edward Corsi, Senator Herbert H. Lehman, Cabell Phillips, Representative Francis E. Walter, Charles H. Seaver, Hevre J. L'Heureux, Robert B. Pitkin, Paul Wiers, Carl Wittke, and Felix S. Cohen. These and other experts discuss in detail such matters as the influx of Puerto Ricans, Mexican "wetbacks," the *pros* and *cons* of: (1) present quotas on European political refugees, (2) the Corsi resignation, (3) Truman's veto of the McCarran-Walter Act, and (4) the various immigration laws, plus some of the many recommendations for changing them.

ULLMAN, B. L., and N. E. HENRY. *Latin for Americans*, Volume I, Revised. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 447 pp. \$3.56. The first question that most Latin teachers, long familiar with earlier editions of this book, are likely to ask is "Just what changes have been made in this revision?" The changes in format and size are obvious. As to content, the changes are numerous and sometimes extensive. The following are the most important. The number of lessons has been reduced from 78 to 77. A few basic words have been eliminated, a few others have been added, and the order of occurrence has frequently been changed. Some reading selections are entirely new (*e.g.*, Lessons V, XIII); others are entirely rewritten (*e.g.*, Lessons III, IV, VII, XIV).

The major changes in grammar presentation have been three: (a) the first and second declensions are taught together, beginning with Lesson IV; (b) the perfect tense has been moved forward from Lesson XXXI to Lesson XIII, and the imperfect has been postponed from Lesson V to Lesson XXVIII; (c) the third declension has been moved forward from Lesson XLVIII to Lesson XLIII. These grammatical changes caused extensive changes in reading selections, exercises, *etc.*

Some of the grammatical matter has been played down and simplified. A number of technical grammatical terms have been eliminated. The English explanations of grammar have been simplified where possible. The sentences in the Latin-English and English-Latin exercises have frequently been shortened and the number reduced somewhat. Many entirely new sentences have been substituted for the old. Brief tabular summaries comparing and contrasting English and Latin grammatical usages have been added to most of the unit reviews. The "Hints for Reading Latin" in Lesson XXVIII have been expanded. Even greater emphasis than before has been given to clarifying the difference between Latin and English word order (see especially Lessons V and XXIII). Some important matters have been put earlier; *e.g.*, the discussion of "word sense," formerly in Lesson XXVIII, is now in Lesson XXI.

A new feature, "Lazy Latin," has been added in Lessons XXXVII and LXXV. Another new feature is the discussion in the "Word Studies" of towns in the United States with ancient names. The "Glimpses of Roman Life" (revised) now regularly precede each unit review. Two new plays have been written for the present edition by Dr. Lillian B. Lawler to Hunter College.

As in the two preceding editions of this book, the title *Latin for Americans* is based on some of the leading features of the book. Among these are the com-

parisons between ancient and modern life in the "Glimpses of Roman Life" and in the reading selections; the emphasis on the American way of life, good citizenship, and democracy throughout the book; the prominence of the English word studies, which occur in every lesson; the emphasis on correct grammatical usage in English; the many illustrations of American buildings that imitate the ancient models and of other American material; the quotation of Latin phrases used on American buildings and as American mottoes; and the listing of American towns, firms, and organizations having ancient names. It is firmly believed that this book, by making young Americans more deeply aware of their cultural heritage, will help make better Americans.

The reading selections, which come first in every lesson, furnish the material for the study of forms, syntax, vocabulary, and word study. The exercises and practice drills may be expanded or reduced by teachers to meet the needs of individual classes. This is especially true of the exercises calling for translation from English into Latin, which some teachers may wish to minimize or omit. A manual, including suggestions and progress tests, is available for teacher use.

ULLMAN, B. L., and N. E. NORMAN. *Latin for Americans*, Volume II, Revised. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1956. 478 pp. \$3.56. Chief among the numerous changes in this edition are the new reading selections added to give the individual pupil a wider choice. Some of the material from Part III of the old edition has been considerably augmented with material from ancient, medieval, and Renaissance authors to make Unit X. Selections from Ovid have been added, so that the superior student may have an opportunity to read both Virgil and Ovid. The material from Pliny in Part III of the old edition has been increased (Unit IX, "Pliny"). A new Latin play, *Caesar Dictator*, has been written for this edition by Dr. Lillian B. Lawler of Hunter College. A number of short humorous modern stories under the recurring title "Latinum Hodiernum" have been added, including adaptations of several of Dr. Norman W. Dewitt's animal stories. "Lazy Latin," a new feature introduced in the 1956 edition of Book I, is continued in this book. The Word Studies have been supplemented by the listing, where appropriate to the text, of U. S. towns with ancient names, a feature introduced in the 1956 edition of Book I. The total number of illustrations have been increased by more than fifty. Many new color illustrations have been prepared for this edition, and the small etymology cartoons, long-time favorites of pupils and teachers, have been redrawn and new ones added. The illustrations play an important part in presenting phases of Roman cultures and its influence on the modern world.

Among other significant changes are the condensation of the story of the Argonauts (Unit IV) and a slight reduction in the selections from Caesar. In neither case have any essential parts been omitted. In addition, the grammatical discussions have been simplified and several technical terms have been eliminated. Some of the sentences in the Latin-English and English-Latin exercises have been simplified. All the practice exercises have been revised.

Unit I gives a rapid review in ten lessons of first-year Latin through a continued story about Roman life that appeals to boys and girls. If the class does not need a thorough review, it is suggested that the stories be read rapidly and that only such grammar be assigned for review as is needed. Unit II introduces new grammatical material such as the subjunctive and the future passive principle. This is reviewed in Unit III (with reading based on Livy) and Unit IV

(the *Argonauts*). Unit IV may be omitted, since the same grammatical material is presented in Unit III. Units V-VI are simplified and graded forms of portions of Caesar's *Gallie War*, Books I-II are included. Units VII-VIII contain selections from Books III-VII.

VARNADO, JEWEL. *Strait Ahead!* New York 1: Vantage Press, Inc. 1956. 73 pp. \$2. A trek across a great, frozen Northern sea is the dramatic theme of this story for young people, which has as its setting the Eskimo land of hundreds of years ago. It tells of Ka-yi, an Eskimo chief who, with his young son, Na-wa, seeking food for his starving tribe, comes upon a Great Water which suddenly solidifies into a vast strait of ice. It was a freeze the like of which was never seen again.

Only the courage and faith of Na-wa keep Chief Ka-yi from turning back from his quest for the vanished caribou, the great herds which had furnished food and clothing—the very stuff of life itself—for his people. Yet the chief cannot forget the shivering of hungry children, or the gaunt, hollow-eyed grownups who never laugh any more.

So, although the half-starved Huskies have scarcely the strength to draw the sled loaded with equipment over the miles of ice-crushed snow, father and son push on toward the northeast—the direction the herds were taking when last seen. A few scrawny caribous are sighted, brought down with arrows, and carried back to the famished villagers.

Heartened, Na-wa and his father set forth again. The boy learns to harness the Huskies, to sharpen arrows and tighten bowstrings, to put up the tent and bank it against wind and snow. He gets his first seal—and misses his first moose. And he solves the mystery of the disappearing caribou.

Before his very eyes a vast expanse of water—the Strait—turns to ice. Now he sees what has happened; the caribou had crossed the Strait when it had frozen once before, and the ice had then thawed, preventing the animals return. Now, on the opposite shore, are thousands upon thousands of caribou and plenty of moose and seal.

Since the caribou had deserted the tribe, the tribe would have to follow; and this book tells the story of that epic migration to the land of plenty. It is exciting to learn in this book that these Eskimos may have become known, in the new country to which they came, as the Indians of North America. This is an ideal adventure story for boys and girls.

WADE, W. W., editor. *U. S. Policy in Asia*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Company. 1955. 191 pp. \$2. This volume assembles the most important statements available on official Far Eastern policy. Reprinted are articles and speeches by such figures as Adlai E. Stevenson, John Foster Dulles, Chester Bowles, Edwin O. Reischauer, William F. Knowland, Harold Stassen, Douglas MacArthur, and C. L. Sulzburger. Background information and *pro* and *con* arguments are presented in relation to the over-all "Economic Program" which has been made a headline topic in connection with the administration's recent re-emphasis on Foreign Aid in the 1956 budget.

Considerable space is devoted to analysis of the "Problem of China" and the relative values of "Arms and Ideas" in the Asian cold war. An analysis is also made of "The Arc of Free Asia," stressing the individual problems of India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, Maylaya, Indonesia, The Philippines, Formosa, Korea and Japan. Of special interest are the articles which touch on the personalities and policies of Asian leaders like Nehru, Ngo Dinh Diem, Magsaysay, and Chiang Kai-Shek.

WAGENKNECHT, EDWARD. *Longfellow, a Full-Length Portrait*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company. 1955. 384 pp. \$6. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow is one of the most popular poets the United States has ever produced. Phrases from his poems are a living part of our language, and he has made Hiawatha, Paul Revere and the rest, a part of every American childhood. Here is the definitive biography of Longfellow, a book which makes use of all materials available both in print and in manuscript. As primary sources, the biographer has used letters, memoranda, and journals written by Longfellow and Mrs. Longfellow, friends, and other members of the family. Much of this material, preserved in Craigie House in Cambridge, has never before been used, and important additions have been made to Longfellow scholarship since Samuel Longfellow produced his authorized memoir a few years after the poet's death. An especially delightful feature of this volume is the really good picture it gives of the character and personality of Longfellow's beloved second wife, Fanny Appleton Longfellow.

WALTON, FRANCIS. *Miracle of World War II*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 587 pp. \$7.50. The stupendous accomplishment of American industry, which contributed so heavily to the winning of World War II, is an amazing and inspiring story now told for the first time in this dramatically documented, comprehensive account. Here is an authoritative, fascinating record of the greatest manufacturing job in the history of the world—a job that was begun under grave handicaps, gathered overwhelming momentum and was operating at full throttle long before the atom bomb was dropped.

Men and women of nearly 200,000 businesses, large and small, rolled up their sleeves. Between 1939 and 1945 they produced one hundred billion dollars worth of war material. They equipped the U. S. Soldier with the first new rifle in nearly a century; they produced 41 billion rounds of ammunition for the guns which were turned against the Axis; they launched the mightiest ship-building program of all time; they turned Diesel power against its German inventors; they converted the mammoth auto industry; they built city-sized factories; they created the biggest air armada of which man ever dreamed.

WAUGH, ALEC. *Island in the Sun*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy. 1955. 544 pp. \$3.95. This novel is a brilliant and distinguished book; a story with tension and excitement. It is a vivid tale of violence and suspense against the background of a sun-drenched island in the West Indies. A few casual words spoken at a party in Santa Marta, an attractive girl arriving at a reception in London, a stalled engine that starts a minute too soon—these lead directly to the ouster of a cabinet minister, the recall of a governor, the downfall of a demagogue, and a new career for a slipping gossip columnist.

A single, exciting thread of dramatic narrative holds together the ambitions, jealousies, complexes, hopes, fears, ideals and inhibitions of the colonial administrators, the feudal landowners, the educated colored lawyers, the slightly colored planters with chips on their shoulders, the ambitious but parochial politicians, the daughters of white planters who can find no suitable mates of their own class and color, the ignorant, good-natured easily inflamed proletariat—all the varied types who make their separate contribution to the turmoil under that hot sun of contemporary West Indian life.

WEAVER, A. T.; G. L. BORCHERS, and D. K. SMITH. *Speaking and Listening*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1956. 384 pp. \$3.48. This book exemplifies modern principles of education in general as well as the best scientifically supported methods of teaching speech. The text begins with broad

motivating experiences which are vital and interesting to the student and proceeds to a direct consideration of those elements which are necessary to the completion of the initial projects.

At the very outset, speech is presented as it functions in the world of radio, television, atomic energy, mechanized industry, interplanetary vision, etc. After this introduction the student prepares himself to function in the modern world by improving such elements of speech as bodily action, voice, language, subject-matter, attitude, and listening, and then practicing his improved habits in formal and informal conversations, interviews and conferences, discussion and debate, reading, story-telling, radio, and drama. Great emphasis is placed on the consideration of individual differences—boys and girls are helped to examine and improve themselves. They learn to adapt their speech to their day-to-day needs in an ever-changing society. The suggestions are concrete, specific, and interesting.

WEINER, ED. *Let's Go to Press*. New York 16: Putnam's Sons. 1955. 288 pp. \$3.75. Nobody is neutral about Walter Winchell. He has been called America's number one patriot-journalist on the one hand, and the biggest menace to security since Benedict Arnold on the other. He may be eulogized on the floor of Congress one day and denounced in the *Congressional Record* the next. Yet the real Winchell is a man nobody knows. Millions of words have been written about him, but they all add up only to a picture of either a hero or a heel, a cardboard giant, a skeleton without flesh and blood.

Here for the first time is Walter Winchell the human being, profiled by a man who has known him well for more than a quarter of a century. Ed Weiner has no ax to grind, no boots to lick. His only purpose in writing of Walter Winchell's life is to give all the facts and let the chips fall where they may. The whole story is here. Winchell—the kid who came up from the city streets, the boy who tap-danced his way into big-time vaudeville, the man who turned to journalism and made a niche for himself that has remained peculiarly his own in newspaper columns, radio, and TV. Here are the inside stories of many of the controversies that have raged around his head—the Josephine Baker incident at the Stork Club, the New York Post suit, the stockmarket controversy, and many more.

WELCHONS, A. M.; W. R. KRICKENBERGER; and H. R. PEARSON. *Algebra, Book One, Elementary Course*, revised edition. Boston 17: Ginn and Company. 1956. 591 pp. \$3.28. The sequence of topics is based upon the pupil's learning ability. Each new topic makes use of preceding ones and leads to the next. The spiral method is used in the treatment of equations, fractions, graphs, and verbal problems. New topics are approached gradually and in a manner interesting to the pupil. Whenever possible the authors have followed the plan of having a rule cover many cases rather than giving a separate rule for each case. By carefully prepared questions and problems, the pupil is led to form conclusions and generalizations which enable him in many cases to formulate his own rules and procedures.

The book is written for the pupil and to the pupil who is beginning the study of algebra. The language is direct, concise, and simple. New words are defined, illustrated, and reviewed frequently. Problems relating to science, commerce, and everyday activities make algebra a living subject. The illustrated articles which point out the need in various professions and occupations for men and women trained in mathematics serve to create in some pupils a desire to con-

tinue its study. A variety of visual helps are employed. Among these may be noted the use of color for emphasis and attractiveness; stimulating photographs; and the many diagrams in both text and exercise material.

The technique of problem-solving as presented in this book has been used by the authors and has proved most effective. The drawings which picture some of the problem situations will be helpful to many students. To aid the teacher in caring for individual differences among pupils, three levels of work are given. The topics and exercises marked A are for all pupils. The B topics and exercises offer additional work for students with more interest and ambition. The C work is a challenge to exceptional students.

WHITE, BETTY. *Teenage Dance Etiquette*. New York 17: David McKay Company. 1956. 64 pp. \$1.95. This text and pictures present in a simple, straightforward, and amusing style the do's and don'ts that will enable the teenager to feel at ease at an informal dance, a prom, or a ball. With a clever picture on each page illustrating the situation being discussed, such matters as arranging the date, what to wear, transportation, corsages, etc., are covered. Difficult details, such as disposing of coats at the dance, procedure for cutting in, how to manage introductions, and what to do in awkward situations, are cleared up, and the teenager is cautioned never to leave without thanking the hostesses and chaperons. Throughout, advice is given as it applies to both the boy and the girl. The book presents the teenager with social practices that are acceptable to his contemporaries—not just those handed down by authority.

WHITEHEAD, A. N. *Religion in the Making*. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1954. 160 pp. \$3. "Few men since Leibnitz and Aristotle have touched so many fields with such originality, precision, and profundity." Thus F. S. C. Northrop wrote at the time of the death of Alfred North Whitehead in 1947, paying tribute to a man who was both moralist and scientist and one of the greatest thinkers of our century. A man of an astonishing range of knowledge, he wrote with freshness and boldness—penetrating and solving problems posed by muddled scientific theories. Here in these Lowell Institute Lectures, a reissue, is an adventure in reading. The central theme of the material is one that challenges each century,—that is, a firm foundation for religious doctrine. Recognizing the universal disagreement as to the validity of religious beliefs, he bases his convictions on "unquestioned factors throughout the long stretch of human history." His approach to the factors which form a religion and its bearing on character, conduct, and ultimate reality in the "attainment of life, is more speculative than analytical." For those of us who seek an essential knowledge of life, he interprets human experience as it relates to elements, laws, and philosophical problems of the world.

WILLIAMS, D. M. *Building Health*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1956. 443 pp. In this book, health needs are approached through the interests which this study shows are high during adolescence. In the junior high school, "growing up" is a very high interest. Reading and discussing are very important experiences for boys and girls, but doing is necessary to make any class vital. This text is designed to provide plenty of doing experiences which will enliven and make real the health principles enunciated in it. The text is adaptable for classes in which pupils and teacher plan together by discovering problems and seeking the answers. The text is so organized that it can be used as resource material and it is not necessary that it be used chronologically or that the subjects be covered in the sequence outlined in the book.

Each chapter has a picture preview which will be useful for stimulating interest and providing the basis for co-operative planning. Through each picture preview, classes are helped to set goals for their study and at the end of the study it can be used to help evaluate progress. Each chapter is also preceded by suggestions for individual and committee experiences, panels, research, and various activities at home and in the community. Each chapter ends with a series of test materials that cover the important health concepts developed within the chapter. The listings of other readings and filmstrips and moving pictures, also found at the end of each chapter, will be of great help to the teacher.

WILSON, EDMUND. *The Scrolls from the Dead Sea*. New York 11: Oxford University Press. 1955. 127 pp. \$3.25. The author describes the most exciting manuscript find of our time in lucid account of the origin, discovery, and implications of the ancient Dead Sea scrolls, the first of which were found by Bedouin boys early in 1947. The significance of this dramatic discovery and its meaning to the history of Christianity and Judaism, and its relevance to modern Biblical research, is recounted in this absorbing narrative.

The author visited the Dead Sea site and writes of scrolls and scholars with warmth and feeling, telling about the personalities involved. He traces the precarious journey of the scrolls from the hands of the Bedouin boys to the Syrian Metropolitan Samuel at the Monastery of St. Mark in Old Jerusalem. The Metropolitan purchased half the Hebrew manuscripts and brought them to the attention of interested scholars. The rest of the manuscripts were purchased by Professor Sukenik of the Hebrew University in New Jerusalem. It was a spectacular find—the oldest Biblical manuscripts yet known—which included a complete copy of the book of Isaiah.

One of these scrolls contained a Manual of Discipline evidently used by the Essenes, a pre-Christian monastic order, whose monastery has recently been excavated near the cave where the scrolls were found. Other caves were explored, and there has come to light what is apparently a whole library of the literature of the religious movement to which the Essenes belonged—a literature which, in some respects, corresponds so closely with the Gospels and the Pauline Epistles that the latter are now thought to derive from it.

WILSON, HOLLY. *Caroline the Unconquered*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1956. 189 pp. \$2.75. In 1853 proper young ladies of sixteen didn't run away from home. But Caroline Morgan had the passionate pride of the Irish and couldn't bear being a "poor relation" at Uncle Ed's house in Detroit. She felt that her place was with her father who was prospecting iron mines in the far wilderness of the Lake Superior country. So, with her young cousin Willie, she slipped away one night to begin a dangerous journey that tested her courage and plunged her into heartbreak and romance.

It was love at first sight when Caroline met tough, arrogantly handsome Johnny Coyne, who was also on the way to the mines. In his mackinaw boat, she and Willie traveled from Sault Ste. Marie up Lake Superior into the teeth of a raging blizzard. Caught in a nightmare of crashing waves, Caroline was flung shoreward to the rocks. Willie was drowned and the boat was wrecked. Stumbling after Johnny through a trackless waste of snow, Caroline felt like a murderess, for she had persuaded Willie to make this reckless journey that ended in his death.

In the village of Henry's Bend, Caroline was reunited with her father. From him and Cousin Martin she learned all she could about iron-mining. She also

learned that she had a rival for Johnny's love, Madella Paquette, a pretty French widow who made it clear that she had staked a claim for Johnny months before.

WIMBERLEY, LEONARD. *The Wound of Peter Wayne.* New York 3: Ariel Books. Children's Book division of Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, Inc. 1955. 224 pp. \$2.75. Peter Wayne, barely seventeen, fought with the Army of Northern Virginia and was present at Appomattox when General Lee laid down his sword in surrender. A Georgia boy, Peter returns home to find his mother dead, his plantation in ruins, and the entire South penniless and threatened by carpetbaggers. Peter goes West, hoping to earn enough money to enable him to repair his house and sow his fields. He will have nothing to do with the hated Northerners he meets on the way, until he is saved from a buffalo by a well-placed shot fired by a veteran of the Union forces. Friends from that point on, they see the West together: Indian fighting, gold mining, working on the Union Pacific—a cross-section of pioneer America. Living and fighting side by side with his friend from the North, Peter realizes that he must not only work for the future of the South, but also for the United States.

WINTERFELD, HENRY. *Detectives in Togas.* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1956. 213 pp. \$2.75. Mucius, Antonius, and three other young Romans hardly expected to find their teacher bound and gagged when they arrived at school one day. Though the room was a shambles, the only stolen articles were a few parchment scrolls and a wax tablet. The missing tablet proved to be more important, however, than they had first realized, because the previous afternoon their friend Rufus, angry with another schoolmate Caius, had written on it in large letters "Caius is a dumbell." The morning of the burglary these same words, in Rufus' handwriting, were found smeared in red paint on the wall of the temple of Minerva. Since the temple was dedicated to the Emperor, such desecration was enough to send Rufus to prison and possibly the galleys.

Though Rufus swore he was innocent, all the evidence was against him. Only his mother, his teacher, and the boys believed him. In a desperate fight against time, they tried to find the person who had framed him. As their search grew warmer, the clues became frightening in their political implications, and a sinister visit to the soothsayer Lukos almost spelled disaster.

WOYTINSKY, W. S. and E. S. *World Commerce and Governments, Trends and Outlook.* New York 36: The Twentieth Century Fund. 1955. 959 pp. \$10. The purpose of this book, say the authors, is "to study world trends during the fateful era in which the mechanized economy, originated on the two coasts of the North Atlantic, is becoming the universal civilization of mankind." From earliest times, trade has been the primary mechanism by which not only goods but ideas and culture have spread around the globe. This comprehensive study examines patterns of trade—and the systems of transportation that feed them and the governments under which they exist—as they now operate throughout the world.

Part I gives facts, analysis, and vivid description of trade in the world economy: nature, value, and volume of exports and imports; tariffs, agreements, payments, and investments. Part II examines the whole vast network of transportation by air, land, and sea within and between nations. Part III analyzes kinds of governments all over the earth, colonies and colonial status, and the full range of international agencies that now exist.

WYMAN, DONALD. *Ground Cover Plants*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1956. 183 pp. \$4.75. A beautiful lawn of grass is the dream of most landscape gardeners, but many a home owner and highway planner has discovered that grass is sometimes impractical or impossible to grow. Everyone who has had this problem will welcome this book dealing exclusively with ground covers, those sturdy, low-growing plants which form an attractive carpet for the soil, and which do not have to be mowed.

ZAMPERINI, LOUIS. *Devil at My Heels*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 253 pp. \$3.95. This is a heart-warming story of a poor boy who became an internationally famous athlete and war hero, and found these triumphs meaningless—until he turned to God. At 32, the famous miler was a washout. The kid who had climbed from poverty to undreamed of heights of fame before he was twenty, who had a magnificent war record, and a beautiful wife and child, seemed bent on self-destruction. His savings had gone in a series of phony get-rich-quick schemes. His health had been impaired by terrible war experiences followed by too many peace-time celebrations. His wife and small daughter feared his wild ways and sudden inexplicable rages. Then the miracle happened, and Louis was saved by the word of God as preached by Billy Graham in a mass meeting in Los Angeles.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1956. 130 pp. 65c. The 5th annual reports of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, for the year ending June 30, 1955, showing allocations of funds to school districts by state.

ANDERSON, DEWEY. *Health Is a Basic Right of All the People*. Washington 3, D. C.: Public Affairs Institute, 312 Pennsylvania Ave., S. E. 1956. 76 pp. 50c. Summarizes the findings of the five-volume study of the President's Commission in the *Health Needs of the Nation*, and presents certain issues that must be resolved concerning health personnel and facilities before we will be as healthy as we have every right to be.

Annual Report. New York 13: American Telephone and Telegraph Co., 32 Avenue of the Americas. 1956. 40 pp. Discusses the achievements in the communications field and presents the company's financial statements as of December 31, 1955.

Annual Report of the Fund for Adult Education. Chicago 4: Fund for Adult Education, 141 W. Jackson Boulevard. 1955. 48 pp. Free. Describes its program and gives financial statements for the year ended June 30, 1955.

APPADORAI, A. *The Bandung Conference*. New York 22: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th St. 1955. 32 pp. 50c. Presents the background and the decisions of the Conference; also, from the same source, is *Indonesian Islam under the Japanese Occupation, 1942-45* by H. J. Binda. (1955. 14 pp. 10c.)

Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington 6, D. C., Publications of:

The American Railway Industry by C. J. Corliss. 1955. 26 pp. Free. A vocational monographs describing opportunities and training requirements in the railway industry.

College Courses in Railroad Subjects. 1956. 32 pp. Free. A list of colleges and universities offering courses in engineering, transportation, and traffic management, with special reference to the railroad field.

The Railroad Field. 1955. 28 pp. Free. Describes and pictures types of work in the railroad industry.

A 16-page Colored Folder describing and picturing different types of freight and passenger trains. Free.

Australia in Facts and Figures. New York: Australian News and Information Bureau. 1955. 76 pp. An official account of Australian policy, economy, and administration for the June quarter, 1955.

Basic Course for Civil Defense. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1955. 48 pp. 30c. An instructor's guide.

BIERLY, I. R. *The Real Revolution and You.* Irvington-on-Hudson, New York: The Foundation for Economic Education. 1956. 8 pp. 10 copies for \$1.50. Discusses economic progress, free market economy, inflation, etc.

BILLS, R. E. *About People and Teaching.* Lexington: Bureau of School Services, College of Education., University of Kentucky. 1955. 80 pp. \$1. There is a theory that certain principles govern human behavior and that the principles may be applied in all human relationships. The author sketches this theory, abstracts some of its educational implications, and demonstrates how it has been applied to educational problems.

BOLLES, R. E., and W. J. LUZADDER. *Problems in Drafting Fundamentals.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. 1956. This is available in two parts. In Part I, problems are grouped as follows: three-view drawings sketched with one view required; two-view drawings sketched from pictorials; instrument drawings, lettering, dimensioning, and inking. Part II includes: lettering, geometrical construction, sectional views, auxiliary views, pictorial drawings, assembly drawings, working drawings, and inking.

BROWN, W. F., and W. H. HOLTZMAN. *Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes.* New York 18: The Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Ave. 1956. 12 pp. Describes the administrations of this instrument which has been prepared (a) to identify students whose study habits and attitudes are different from those of students who earn high grades, (b) to aid in understanding students with academic difficulties, and (c) to provide a basis for helping such students to improve their study habits and attitudes and thus more fully realize their best potentialities.

Building a United States of Europe. Washington 5, D. C.: The Information Office., European Community for Coal and Steel, 220 Southern Building. 1956. \$1. The High Authority of the European Community for Coal and Steel has prepared this special study unit on the subject, designed for use in this country by secondary schools, colleges, and by civic groups. Its timeliness in current international affairs and its flexibility as a teaching and study aid will be of interest to teachers and students.

A Car is Born. Dearborn: Department of Educational Affairs, Ford Motor Company, 300 Schaefer Road. 1955. 32 pp. Free. This newest teaching aid is a complete educational kit containing an informative book, three filmstrips, and a teacher's guide. (16 pp.). Developed for use in grades seven through twelve, the book tells the story of the manufacture of an automobile from planning to production. This illustrated book in color contains three sections: (1) research, styling, and engineering; (2) manufacturing; and (3) assembly.

Each of the sections is augmented by a filmstrip. The teacher's guide follows the outline of the book and includes synopsis, suggested activities, topics for discussion, and key ideas. The guide also includes illustrated, easy-to-follow scripts for the filmstrips.

The kit is packaged in a box designed to store it along with other Ford teaching aids. Because the supply of slidefilms is limited, the teacher is asked to return them after showing to classes. A mailing tube and addressed, postage paid label are included. Teachers may obtain this and other educational material distributed by Ford Motor Company by writing to the above address. There is no charge for any of these aids.

Chatham Year. Pittsburg 32: Chatham College, Woodland Road. 1956. 16pp. Chatham College (formerly Pennsylvania College for Women) named after William Pitt, the first Earl of Chatham, celebrates and presents a glimpse into its future.

College Entrance Examination Board. *Fall Meeting Proceedings.* New York 27: The Board, 425 West 117th St. 1955. (Oct. 26) 40 pp. A report of the director, minutes of the meetings, and a listing of representatives and guests.

Continuity and Growth in Intercultural Relations. Buffalo 2; City of Buffalo, Board of Community Relations, 1502 City Hall. 1955. 48 pp. This booklet is a report of the Board's program for the period July 1, 1952 through June 30, 1955.

COOK, M. C. *New Library Key.* New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950-972 University Ave. 1956. 136 pp. \$1. This new publication is for college students, for teachers wishing to broaden their knowledge of subject matter, and for adults who have not had previous opportunities to become familiar with the services of libraries. It will be especially useful to students who require help in isolating research materials pertinent to their work. Two chapters are devoted to "Research for a Term Paper." In library schools, students will find the new *Key* an excellent aid for brushing up on library terminology and practices. The class-tested material analyzes and explains the function of the library, exploring at length the profitable use of dictionaries, encyclopedias, card catalogs, periodicals, indexes, and special reference books in the arts and sciences. Non-book materials like pamphlets, vertical files, documents, and audio-visual aids are covered in a special chapter.

Coronet Films 1956-57. Chicago 1: Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St. 1956. 96 pp. A catalogue of 16mm sound motion pictures for educational use available through this company, arranged in three groups: primary grades 1 to 3, intermediate grades 4 to 6 and junior and senior high-school, grades 7 to 12.

Course of Study in Industrial Arts. Brooklyn 1: Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street. 1955. 50 pp. 50c. A program designed for both boys and girls for grades 10, 11, and 12. Presents correlations of the industrial arts content with other phases of general education.

Crisis in the Classroom. New York 28: Community Service Bureau, American Jewish Congress, Stephan Wise Congress House, 15 East 84th Street, 1955. 54 pp. 40c, each; 10 or more copies, 25c each. This is a guide for study groups on attacks against public education. It's a lively and informative manual which is designed to acquaint citizens with the facts behind the attacks on our public schools and the ways they can meet those attacks.

The Declaration of Washington. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1956. 8 pp. 10c. A joint declaration of the President of the United States and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

Economic Policy for American Agriculture. New York 22: Committee for Economic Development (CED), 444 Madison avenue. 1956. 60 pp. Single copies, free. This statement by CED's Research and Policy Committee examines the problems of American agriculture. Measures to control surpluses and to obtain greater income stability for the farmer are proposed. The special problems of the low-income farmer are also discussed.

Education's Meeting at the Summit. Washington 6, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, National Educational Association. 1956. \$1. A portfolio of reports from the White House Conference on Education, designed to help build continuing interest in schools.

EDWARDS, T. B. *The Regional Project in Secondary Education.* Berkeley 4: Union of California Press. 1956. 68 pp. \$1. An evaluation of a program of co-operative curriculum development in which the author describes and assesses the program in a number of California high schools.

Emphasizing Educational Television. Ann Arbor, Mich.: H. K. Newburn, Educational Television and Radio Center. 1956. 36 pp. A collection of speeches and articles reviewing the past and the future of this newest medium of education.

Engineers' Council for Professional Development. New York 18: The Council, 29 W. 39th Street. 1956. 60 pp. The councils 23rd annual report including committee reports.

First-Year Teachers in 1954-55. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. (February). 48 pp. 50c. The focus of attention is upon salaries paid, financial status, problems encountered, attitudes toward teaching, and related matters which may affect continued employment of the beginner and the profession as a whole. This report touches many facets of the supply problems and on some changes that are beginning to take place in the total teaching corps.

Flexibility in the Co-ordinated Classroom. Cleveland 5: The E. F. Hauserman Company, 6800 Grant Avenue. 1956. 36 pp. Free. Explores the subject of school interior flexibility and its impact on both the physical and psychological environment of the child, as well as requirements of the community; reviews the possibility of achieving not only greater, but also permanent, interior flexibility through the use of movable steel partitions designed expressly for school space division applications. This brochure is published as a reference guide for those progressive educators and school administrative officials who are actively seeking better utilization of education facilities.

Frontiersman of the Future. Washington 6, D. C.: Manufacturing Chemists' Association, 1625 Eyo St., N. W. 1956. 16 pp. Free. Discusses opportunities in the field of chemistry.

GARDNER, G. H. *Fun Things for Young Fingers.* New York 1: The William-Frederick Press, 313 West 35th Street. 1955. 32 pp. \$1.50. Suggests projects for the young child to make. See also the author's book, *Teacher Tells a Story.* (1954. 44 pp. \$1.50.) Contains three stories and 16 poems for small children.

Geographic Distribution in Exchange. New York 21: Institute of International Education, 1 East Sixty-seventh Street. 1956. 20 pp. Discusses the geographical distribution of United States Government grantees, both American and foreign, and concludes that the present distribution is in accordance with existing educational facilities in the United States and other controlling factors.

Getting Along, series. Montclair, New Jersey: The Economics Press, Inc., P. O. Box 460. The *Getting Along* series is designed to make civilized conduct make sense. It helps children understand not only *how* to get along better with their associates but *why* it pays to do so. The series consists of ten pamphlets (8 pp each). Titles are as follows: No. 1. Think of Others; No. 2. A Pat on the Back; No. 3. Why Argue?; No. 4. The Magic Words; No. 5. Everybody Makes Mistakes; No. 6. The Reason for Rules; No. 7. Breaking Rules; No. 8. It's All in Your Mind; No. 9. Human Rights, and No. 10. Why Criticize? Drawings epitomize each point and intrigue non-readers as well as readers. The second five issues, just off the press, have been developed to meet specific behavior problems which teachers have pointed out.

GREENEWALT, C. H. *Don't Rock the Boat*. Wilmington: E. I. Du Pont De Nemours and Company, Public Relations Department. 1956. 16 pp. Free. The text of a talk by the president of the Du Pont company before the Delaware State Chamber of Commerce.

Hearts in the Balance. New York 10: American Heart Association, 44 E. 23rd St. 1956. 32 pp. Free. Annual report for 1955 of the American Heart Association.

HEATH, MONROE. *Great Americans at a Glance*. Redwood City, Calif.: Pacific Coast Publishers. 1955. 32 pp. \$1. The Americans included in this volume have been chosen for their historical importance in the growth and development of the United States or for their distinction in writing history. These include statesmen, explorers, historians, and Armed Forces officers. The United States Presidents are included in another volume.

HESTON, J. C. *Learning About Tests*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue. 1956. 40 pp. 50c. This booklet is written to help students learn how to take tests and how to study for them so they may get better marks on their examinations.

HOPPE, ARTHUR. *Students Help Improve the Curriculum in Indiana*. Bloomington: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University. 1956. 55 pp. \$1. Student participation in curriculum improvement is presented as an effective means of extending the practice of democracy in secondary schools and of improving the educational situation for youth.

How Our Magazines Contribute to Better Marketing. New York 16: The Magazine Publishers Association, 232 Madison Ave. 1956. 20 pp. An editor, an economist, and an educator report to America's advertising and marketing executives on the participation of U. S. magazines in raising the standards of living, improving the levels of culture, speeding the growth of mass education, and making America a better place in which to live.

How To Find Out About the United Nations. New York 27: International Document Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway. 1955. 80 pp. 25c. Contains facts about the United Nations and material available.

HUNT, R. L., editor. *Public Education and Religion*. New York 10: National Council of the Churches of Christ in the U. S. A., 120 E. 23rd St. 1955. 32 pp. 30c each, or 6 copies for \$1. Discusses various phases of the problem and contains a chart concerning Bible reading in the public schools by states.

JAMES, P. E., and SHIRLEY HESS. *Better Teaching with Relief Maps*. Philadelphia 20: Aero Service Corporation, 210 E. Courtland St. 1956. 44 pp. The manual contains information on such diverse subjects as major land regions, natural vegetation, famous explorations, territorial growth, slavery, cotton and

the Civil War, and coal fields of the United States. All text in the manual is graphically shown with more than 50 diagrams, maps, and illustrations.

JARACZ, W. A. *Opening (Fall) Enrollment in Higher Educational Institutions, 1955*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1956. 52 pp. 35c. Gives college enrollment as of the fall of 1955 by states and by institutions (1,858 institutions).

KIRKENDALL, L. A. *Understanding the Other Sex*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue. 1955. 48 pp. 50c. The purpose of the booklet is to discover some of the causes of the misunderstandings that exist between boys and girls. It will also help the teenager to understand why members of the other sex think, act, and feel as they do. The authors suggest ways to build understanding between boys and girls, and men and women, and what can be done to increase trust and friendliness between them.

Major Activities in the Atomic Energy Programs. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1956. 212 pp. 60c. The 19th semi-annual report of the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission. Describes activities and assesses progress.

MC INNIS, EDGAR. *The Commonwealth Today*. New York 22: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 E. 54th St. 1955. 45 pp. 50c. A series of four lectures delivered at Mount Allison Summer Institute, Sockville, New Brunswick, on the British Commonwealth.

MEANY, GEORGE. *What Organized Labor Expects of Management*. New York 17: National Association of Manufacturers, 2 E. 48th St. 1956. 20 pp. 10c. Address of the President of the newly merged AFL-CIO, delivered at a luncheon session of the Congress of American Industry in New York City, December, 1955. Also included is the reply of C. R. Sligh, Chairman of the Board of NAM under the title of "What Management Expects of Organized Labor."

MEEKS, M. F. *Lettering Techniques*. Austin 12 Texas: Visual Instruction Bureau, 18th and Red River Sts. 1956. 36 pp. This book is designed for those who have not had formal instruction in the art of lettering. The first section gives some idea of the appropriateness of the different kinds of lettering for different uses. It shows how lettering can make a visual presentation complete. The second section outlines a variety of ways that lettering can be prepared.

NEUBERGER, R. L. *Our Natural Resources and Their Conservation*. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street. 1956. 28 pp. 25c. The dramatic story of our country's resources: the wealth our forefathers found on this continent, how it has been exploited, and the efforts at conservation to preserve for future generations this basis of our national strength.

1955 Junior Book Awards. New York 16: Boy's Clubs of America, 381-4th Avenue. 1955. 142 pp. Contains the boys' comments about books they have read. Books are arranged by areas of interest, such as animals, Westerns, sports, history, etc.

Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Vernon L. Nickell, Springfield, Ill., Publications of:

Allen, C. M., *How To Conduct the Holding Power Study of the Illinois Curriculum Program*, revised. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 23. June 1955. 64 pp.

Bone, R. G.; R. S. Jones, and others, *The Nature of the School Population in the State of Illinois*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 24. June 1955.

Casey, Virginia, *English Teaching Aids for a Stronger America*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 22, Part E. June 1955. A series of resource units on aviation for teacher use.

Fritsch, E. G., *Science Teaching Aids for a Stronger America*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 22, Part A. February 1955. 157 pp. A series of resource units on aviation for teacher use.

Lovell, H. D., *Guidance Aids for a Stronger America*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 22, Part C. March 1955. 132 pp. A series of resource units on aviation for teacher use.

Merwin, J. C., *Mathematics Teaching Aids for a Stronger America*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 22, Part B. March 1955. 94 pp. A series of resource units on aviation for teacher use.

Office of Technical Services, *Illinois Citizens Report*, Illinois Pre-White House Conference on Education. 1955. 48 pp. A digest of the discussion that took place at the State's Pre-White House Conference on Education.

Sheel, M. A., *Social Studies Teaching Aids for a Stronger America*. Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 22, Part D. May 1955. 184 pp. A series of resource units on aviation for teacher use.

OSBORNE, ERNEST. *How To Choose a Camp for Your Child*. New York 16: Public Affairs Pamphlet, 22 E. 38th Street. 1956. 32 pp. 25c. Discusses factors to consider in choosing a camp.

Parent-Pupil Handbook. Newark, Delaware: Newark Senior High School. 1955. 25 pp. Mimeo. Contains information for parents and pupils about the school's program as an aid to help students get the most from a high-school education.

A Pocketful of Ideas. Washington 6, D. C.: Citizenship Committee, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1956. Contains information on local association civic practices. Also available from the same source are *Default Is Ours!* (12 pp.) and *Quick Quiz on Politics*.

POLIER, J. W. *Back to What Woodshed?* New York 16: Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th Street. 1956. 32 pp. 25c. Judge Polier discusses the growth of intolerant and uninformed opinion with respect to the current demand for punishment of juvenile delinquents and their parents.

PRATT, W. E. *Daily Unit Bible Readings*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company. 1956. 98 pp. A compilation of Bible selection providing readings for school use appropriate to the occasion and arranged around central thoughts and ideas. The selections have been taken from more than 1,000 readings gathered from many sources. There are 190 selections, of which 180 are organized on a daily basis around some central thought or ideas, and an additional 10 selections for use on special occasions.

Program for Progress. New York 17: National Association of Manufacturers, 2 East 48th Street. 1956. 24 pp. Free. A report of the NAM's 60th Annual Congress of American Industry.

Protecting Children in America. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1955. 48 pp. 20c. Proceedings of a conference on adoption attended by representatives of the medical, legal, and social professions. The conference was held for the purpose of exploring ways to eliminate the "black market" in babies in which the demand for white infants far exceeds the supply, and of promoting adequate protections for all children placed in adoption. Thirty-one

national and international professional organizations sent delegates to the conference.

Pupil's Day in Court. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. 17 pp. Mimeo. A compilation of court cases during 1955 made by the Research Division of the NEA.

Recordkeeping for High Schools. Brooklyn 1: Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street. 1955. 89 pp. An alternative course to bookkeeping in the business curriculum to meet the needs of young people and to provide business with workers who can handle simple business records.

The Responsibility of Higher Education for Helping To Develop International Understanding. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave, N. W. 1956. 22 pp. The statements and the summary of the discussion on higher education and international affairs during the Council's annual meeting.

SCHLOSS, SAMUEL, and C. J. HOBSON. *Enrollment, Teachers, and Schoolhousing.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1956. 16 pp. 15c. The shortage of qualified teachers and the lack of adequate schoolhousing prompted the U. S. Office of Education to secure and publish these data on pupil enrollment, classroom teachers, teachers with sub-standard credentials, pupils in excess of the normal capacity of the accessible publicly owned school plants in use, and the number of instruction rooms scheduled for completion during 1955-56.

The School Teacher's Day in Court. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. 29 pp. Mimeo. A compilation of court cases during 1955 made by the Research Division of the NEA.

SCRIPTURE, ELIZABETH, and M. R. GREER. *Find It Yourself.* New York 52: H. W. Wilson Company, 950-972 University Avenue. 1955. 64 pp. 40c; 10 or more at 20c each. A guide to the use of books and libraries divided into 8 lessons: the book, dictionaries, general encyclopedias, classification and the card catalog, reader's guide, special reference books, pamphlets and visual aids, and taking notes. Also included is a "Pre-Test" with 50 questions. This is designed for self-testing so that the reader or student can see for himself which chapters he should stress. Assignments also follow each individual chapter.

Selection and Training of Part-time Instructors. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1955. 32 pp. 25c. Gives practical suggestions on how this task may be carried out in an effective manner. Deals largely with adult groups in distributive education.

SHEA, T. J., JR. *Implementing Land Reform in India.* New York 22: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 E. 54th Street. 1956. 8 pp. 10c. Discusses India's nation-wide land reform movement.

The Skilled Work Force of the United States. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1955. 32 pp. 20c. Contains charts and texts on the problem of skilled laborers—a problem "deeply interwoven in the fabric of our social and economic structure."

SMITH, E. G. *A Comparative Test of Flat Glass and Glass Block Fenestrations Under Summer Conditions.* College Station: Texas Engineering Experiment Station, Texas A. and M. College. 1955. (October, Research Report 52). 16 pp. Describes the procedure and results of experiments with flat glass block fenestrations.

STOLLBERG, ROBERT. *You and TV*. Chicago 10, Ill.: Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue. 1956. 56 pp. 60c. Do you know how the picture is formed on your television screen? Do you know how sight and sound travel from a studio to you? Do you know how a television camera works or what happens inside your television set when you turn it on? These and other questions on the workings of television are answered in this booklet.

Suggested School Health Policies, third edition. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1956. 46 pp. The purpose of this document is to provide a clear, comprehensive statement of specific school policies which directly or indirectly affect the health of pupils. It is implied that the adoption of these policies by any elementary or secondary school will improve the health status both of the pupils in the school and the communities in which the schools are located.

This document is written at the level of the school administrator, because no school policy can be put into effect successfully without his understanding, consent, and action. However, these statements are addressed to all persons in any way concerned with the health of the school child so that they, too, may understand how best to share and co-operate in making and carrying out programs which will in fact improve the health of children and youth.

THORPE, L. P.; D. W. LEFEVER; and R. A. NASLUND. *SRA Achievement Tests*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue. 1955. 48 pp. A guide to teachers who use the SRA Achievement Tests for elementary and junior high schools for the interpretation and follow-up of achievement scores.

VINMONT, R. B., compiler. *Our Presidents at a Glance*. Redwood City, Calif.: Pacific Coast Publishers. 1955. 40 pp. \$1. Handsome portraits and compact biographies of every President of the United States. This volume also contains a most useful summarizing chart (excellent for quizzes), the Constitution in brief, a list showing when each state was admitted into the Union, the President's Oath, the Pledge of Allegiance, the American's Creed, and a grouping of all Presidents by ancestral nationality and religion.

WAYLAND, S. R.; E. deS. BRUNNER, and W. C. HALLENBECK. *Aids to Community Analysis for the School Administrator*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1956. 56 pp. \$1. A document intended to fill a need for practical assistance to school administrators in the crucial problem of community analysis and understanding. Herein are pointed out paths to community analysis which are a must for top-level administrators today.

Woodrow Wilson Centennial, 1856-1956. Washington 25, D. C.: The Woodrow Wilson Centennial Celebration Commission, Room 2003, Interior Building. 1956. 42 pp. Contains aids for developing a program; includes an extensive Wilson chronology.

News Notes

FEDERAL AID ALREADY HERE—While it is generally known that Federal aid for schools is and has been a fact for a long time, the extent and duration of such aid apparently is not understood according to an article in the *Alabama School Journal* (November 1955, page 5). Moreover, the hue and cry raised against Federal assistance because of the likely interference of the Federal government in the operation of local schools is not borne out by the experience of past years. These statements are amply supported by a recent study by Dr. B. J. Chandler, of the University of Virginia, with reference to aid received by the Old Dominion from Washington. Dr. Chandler listed the several acts authorizing Federal assistance to education and the purpose as follows:

<i>Act</i>	<i>Year Passed</i>	<i>Purpose</i>
1. Hatch Act	1887	Promote agricultural sciences
2. Adams Act	1906	Research in agriculture
3. Smith-Lever	1914	Promote agricultural extension work
4. Smith-Hughes	1917	Vocational education
5. Federal Social Security Act Title 6	1936	Training of public health personnel
6. George-Deen	1917	Vocational education
7. Act of February 26, 1944	1944	Education of Aleut residents on Pribilof Islands
8. Barden-LaFollette Act	1943	Vocational rehabilitation
9. The Surplus Property Act	1944	Donations of surplus property to educational institutions
10. National School Lunch Act	1946	Subsidize school lunch program
11. George-Barden Act	1946	Development of vocational education
12. Public Law 815 and 874	1950	Schoolhouse construction
13. Public Law 246	1953	Schoolhouse construction
14. Public Law 346	1944	Veteran education
15. Public Law 550	1952	Veteran education

AIR FORCE ENCOURAGES ITS PERSONNEL TO TEACH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS—The United States Air Force has announced a program to assist in solving the Nation's secondary-school teacher shortage by encouraging members of the Air Force to participate as teachers in local educational programs on a voluntary off-duty basis. The program encompasses officers and airmen on active duty, retired Air Force personnel, and civilian employees. The teaching of science and mathematics is being emphasized. Many officers, airmen, retired personnel, and civilian employees are qualified for teaching posts and could, with a minimum of difficulty, obtain certificates to teach in secondary schools. In some cases, they may be required to meet local requirements by taking additional courses before they will be permitted to teach.

Commanders at all echelons are undertaking to identify officers, airmen, and civilian employees within their commands who are qualified and who could readily qualify to instruct in the United States public school system at the secondary-school level. These persons are being encouraged to accept teaching positions in nearby local schools during off-duty hours on a voluntary basis. Base officials will meet with local superintendents or principals of secondary schools to ascertain what specific assistance they need that could be provided by Air Force personnel. Someone on the base, in most cases the education services officer or the education adviser, has been designated as the commander's personal representative to assist local school officials and the prospective teachers in job interview, placement, and certification. Commanders are also establishing contact with retired personnel in the local area to encourage them to offer their services to the local schools.

CHALLENGING THE GIFTED STUDENT—The Houston (Texas) Independent School District has prepared a series of three booklets (8½" x 11") in an effort to ensure that students of unusual ability are identified early in their school careers that they may be carefully counseled and be given every opportunity to extend and intensify their study. The material in each of the booklets is suggested projects for teachers. They are intended to encourage individual investigation and advanced work on the part of these gifted students. The areas covered in the three booklets are biology, composition, and literature.

GUIDANCE FOR PUPILS AND PARENTS—Rich Township High School's (Park Forest, Illinois; Eric R. Baber, superintendent) educational program combines traditional and progressive characteristics in a carefully tailored curriculum designed to offer equally enriched opportunities to all students. Use of guidance techniques, individualized instruction, and well-trained teachers encourage each student to work up to his ability. Its educational program is continuously evaluated and includes such offerings as *Unified Studies* (basically on English-social studies combination in a two-hour block); *Freshman Survey*, involving coeducational exploratory experiences in personal typing, industrial arts, homemaking, and arts and crafts, each for nine weeks; *Driver Education*; *Biology* instead of general science at the ninth-grade level; and *Physical Science*, introduced at the tenth grade. An experimental three-track *Mathematics* program is in operation, with pre-professional Math opportunities amounting to 4½ years of Math in the regular four years of high-school instruction. Semi-micro laboratory technique is taught in *Chemistry*. The *Vocal Music* program includes more than 50 per cent of the student body. Courses also are offered in *Geography* and *World Affairs*, *History of Western Civilization*, and "honor" courses in each academic subject field for gifted pupils. Some of the material about the school and available for community use is *A Superior Program of Four Years of Science* (10 pp.), *Guidance Services in Rich High* (13 pp.), and *Course Offerings* (21 pp.).

STATUS OF URBAN TEACHERS AFTER ONE YEAR ON THE JOB—When a new teacher finishes her first year on the job, she has good cause to lead a chorus of that popular song of woe, "Sixteen Tons," but, according to a survey by the National Education Association, she whistles a far braver tune. Despite the fact that the average first-year teacher in urban schools has only \$191 to carry her through the summer, she and the great majority of her colleagues are not disappointed with teaching. More than 40 per cent say they like it even better than they thought they would.

The survey, a project of the NEA Research Division, draws a candid portrait of the young teacher who in 1954-55 completed one year of service in an urban school system. It tallies the responses of 2,600 men and women who were queried on such intimate details as personal finances, social life, marital status, and plans for the future. Copies of the complete survey (48 pages) may be obtained from Research Division, National Education Association, 1201-16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

NUMBER OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES—The U. S. Office of Education through its Research and Statistical Services has released the following data on the number of high-school graduates from public and nonpublic schools, 1939-40 to 1950-52 and forecasts to 1959-60.

School year	<i>High-school graduates</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
1939-40	1,221,475	578,718	642,757
1941-42	1,242,375	576,717	665,658
1943-44	1,019,233	423,971	595,262
1945-46	1,080,033	466,926	613,107
1947-48	1,189,909	562,863	627,046
1949-50	1,199,700	570,700	629,000
1950-51	1,181,800	562,500	619,300
1951-52	1,196,500	569,200	627,300
1952-53	1,289,300	608,500	608,800
1953-54	1,356,400	640,200	716,200
1954-55	1,399,300	660,500	738,800
1955-56	1,463,900	691,000	772,900
1956-57	1,526,900	720,700	806,200
1957-58	1,562,400	737,500	824,900
1958-59	1,630,300	769,500	860,800
1959-60	1,742,100	822,300	919,800

REPORT ON THE WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE—The Library and Education Division of the Collier's Encyclopedia, 640 Fifth Avenue, New York 19, New York, has selected 6 articles from the *Collier's 1956 Year Book* for distribution as a 24-page reprint. This reprint, available from the above address at 10 cents per copy, contains observations of the chairman of the White House Conference, its organization and purpose, reports of the topic chairmen, building needs and architectural developments, finance, and administration, plus a debate on Federal aid to education with the *pro* by Belmont Farley of the NEA and the *con* by Jackson J. Kilpatrick, editor of the *Richmond News Leader*.

THE READING CLINIC—The 1956 Annual Reading Institute at Temple University was held in Philadelphia the week of January 23-27. Delegates attending the program to exchange ideas on practices and techniques in the training of reading included classroom teachers from kindergarten to adult and college levels, reading specialists, school administrators, psychologists, and vision specialists from 25 states and Canada. The conference theme, "Thinking and Related Comprehension Skills," was explored in several ways. General session talks and group demonstrations, small group discussions and individual demon-

strations, as well as small laboratory sessions for specific techniques, were all used to meet the various problem of the delegates. Topics included the scope and sequence of reading comprehension, the evaluation of student's comprehension, and how comprehension skills can be developed. Practical classroom problems pertaining to the conference theme, were considered under the guidance of 80 professional faculty members led by Dr. E. Elona Sochor, Director of the Reading Clinic, the Reading Clinic Staff, and ten visiting educational leaders.

HELPING YOUTH TO FACE THE FACTS OF MILITARY LIFE—The U. S. Army has prepared three booklets which will be most helpful to secondary-school counselors and to high-school boys and girls. The first of the series, *This . . . Is How It Is*, is a clear, readable account of the experiences of a recruit from his arrival at the Reception Station to the completion of basic training, eight weeks later. Any high-school student who reads this booklet will have a realistic preview of the first two months in the Army and will probably decide that it doesn't sound too bad after all. The introductory section, which advises young people to stay in school and to get all the education possible before entering the military service, provides a needed word of caution to young men who may be disposed to jump the gun and sign up before completing school. This is in keeping with Department of Defense Policy which urges students to get all the education possible before entering military service.

The second booklet, *Reserved For You*, is a source book on educational information which outlines the wide variety of technical training programs provided by the U. S. Army. It also explains the provision by which a recruit who enlists for a three-year period may receive a written guarantee that he will receive the training course of his choice, after eight weeks of basic training. The section, "Army School Training Has Civilian Value" is particularly helpful in showing how service training may be used to good advantage upon return to civilian life.

The third booklet in the series, *It's Your Decision*, discusses a problem confronting many a high-school boy, whether to enlist or take his chances with the draft. It also contains helpful information on the value of various high-school subjects in later military service. The section on relationships with the local Selective Service Board should be read by every high-school boy before he reaches the age of 18. Copies of these three booklets may be secured from the U. S. Army, Washington 25, D. C.

ASSEMBLY PROGRAM AIDS—A new kit of materials on polio is now available for high-school assembly programs. This assembly material was planned to involve students in learning activities, leading to their better understanding of polio and the vaccine. It is especially important that high-school students understand the vaccination program, since eventually they, as well as younger children, will have an opportunity for immunization against the disease. Programs of different types are suggested and outlined: A Panel on Polio, Three-Way Talk, Dramatic Skit, Quiz Program, and Use of Community Resources. If desired, a film can be furnished on free loan. Each school may, of course, choose the plan best adapted to its needs and circumstances. The responsibility can be delegated to the high-school science club, social science club, biology class, health education class, etc. Booklets to provide sources of information are enclosed in the kit. The local chapter of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis also can be helpful in providing facts about polio in the community. Write to Division of Public Education, The National Foundation

for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York 5, New York for copies of *Polio—A High School Assembly Kit*.

OUR-HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES—Today's high-school graduates are better educated than the graduates of a dozen years ago, a nation-wide series of tests administered by the University of Chicago shows. At the same time, the variations in educational achievement from state to state are so great that students in many areas are being short-changed educationally. The results come from new test standards for educational achievement designed by Benjamin S. Bloom, professor of education and examiner for the University of Chicago. These tests, developed under contract for the Office of Armed Forces Information and Education of the U. S. Department of Defense are described in an article in the March 1956 issue of *School Review*. The tests were divided into five main sections—English, social studies, natural sciences, literary materials, and mathematics. The most improvement between 1943 and 1955 was noted in mathematics, the least in social studies. In 1955, the average senior tested in mathematics did better than fifty-eight per cent of the seniors tested in 1943. In social studies, the average senior of 1955 did better than fifty-two per cent of those tested in 1943. The scale has shifted on the average upwards by about five points out of one hundred. The new tests were given to some 39,000 high-school seniors in their last two months of school. This is a statistically arrived at sample of five per cent of the nation's high-school students.

SIXTH JOHN HAY FELLOWS PROGRAM ANNOUNCED—The John Hay Whitney Foundation announces that it is accepting applications for the John Hay Fellowship program for 1957-58. Nominations will be welcomed on behalf of qualified public high-school teachers in the states of Georgia, Kentucky, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Washington, and West Virginia. Fellowships for a period of one academic year will be awarded to a limited number of outstanding senior high-school teachers from these eight states for study in the broad area of the humanities at either Yale University or Columbia University. The Fellows will participate in special programs developed in co-operation with the faculties of these institutions and will have an opportunity to study under great scholars and teachers and to explore areas of knowledge related to their teaching fields and to their personal academic interests.

Fellowship awards provided by the John Hay Whitney Foundation will include stipends equal to the salaries received from the employing school during the fellowship year. In no case will the award be less than \$3,000.00 and grants for tuition and transportation are also given.

All applicants are nominated by the local superintendent of schools or other school official who is in a position to help plan a proposed program of graduate studies and utilize the Fellow's new experience upon their return to high-school teaching. As in the past five years during which the program has been in operation, each teacher accepted for study as a John Hay Fellow must be granted a year's leave by his employing school system and must agree to return to it following his university work for at least one year.

Teachers must be no more than 45 years of age and have at least five years of high-school teaching experience, the most recent two of which shall have been in the present employing school system. While such fields as language, literature, history, and the fine arts are most commonly associated with the humanities, nominations will be welcomed from eligible teachers of other subjects, includ-

ing the social sciences and the natural sciences. Inquiries from teachers and administrators should be directed to the Division of the Humanities, John Hay Whitney Foundation, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, New York. The deadline for receipt of completed nominations is May 31, 1956.

"EVALUATIVE CRITERIA" BEING REVISED—In response to an invitation from the revision program director of the Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards, the Commission is participating in suggesting changes to improve the 1960 edition of *Evaluative Criteria* with regard to safety education. Commission Chairman Burt P. Johnson appointed a small sub-committee consisting of himself, Commission members Josephine Gustafson and Ivan J. Stehman, and Charles E. Bish, principal of McKinley High School, Washington, D. C., to study and make preliminary recommendations for improving section D-7 of the *Evaluative Criteria*. The subcommittee met in Washington on January 11 and a report of this meeting was made at the annual executive session of the Commission held on January 12-14.

The *Evaluative Criteria* grew out of a co-operative effort begun in 1933 by representatives of the six regional associations of colleges and secondary schools. Through extensive use by thousands of secondary-school educators over a period of more than 20 years, the *Evaluative Criteria* have had widespread influence on bringing about improvements in secondary-school standards. The Commission is highly interested in contributing its recommendations to improve those aspects of the material that relate to safety education.

SUMMER WORKSHOP ON INTERGROUP RELATIONS—An action oriented workshop on *Intergroup Relations* for social science majors, social workers, teachers, community organization workers, police and hospital personnel will be sponsored by Western Reserve University, June 18-27, 1956, under the leadership of Professors Joseph W. Eaton and Marvin B. Sussman. Participants will have the opportunity to gain experience with intergroup relations activities in Metropolitan Cleveland and to participate in a research project. Extensive use will be made of local and national consultants. Areas covered in lectures and group discussions include the History of Ethnic Groups and Present Status; the Legal Approach to Intergroup Relations; Intergroup Relations in Industry, Housing, Social Work, Labor, and Politics; in the School, Fraternity, and Hospital; the Enforcement of Equality; and the Use of Propaganda. The workshop will provide 6 semester credit hours and will be limited to 40 students. Some part- and full-tuition scholarships are available. Inquiries and regulations should be directed to Hollace G. Roberts, Director of Admissions, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION—An opportunity to participate in the International Seminar in Education and International Organizations Seminars in Geneva—the international center of Europe—is again available for the summer of 1956, featuring a six-week program in three two-week units. Any two-week, four-week, or the six-week program may be selected on the basis of one graduate or undergraduate credit per week of study. Two additional credits may be earned by those who select the six weeks and are interested in research areas.

Important features while in Geneva are the week-end excursions by boat, train, and motor coach to Rochers de Naye, Montreux, the Castle of Chillon, to Zermatt at the foot of the majestic Matterhorn, the Lake trip, and to Chamonix at the foot of the beautiful Mount Blanc. Living at the historic International

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SUMMER SCHOOL IN MEXICO—The University of Guanajuato at Guanajuato, Mexico, is planning a special summer session beginning July second through August seventeenth. There will be three courses offered in Spanish a beginners, an intermediates, and a teacher's course—; four courses in literature, and one course on the history of Mexican independence. There are also some other credit-carrying courses. For information write to University of Guanajuato, Guanajuato, Mexico.

SUMMER SCHOOL FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL LEADERS—The University of Pennsylvania summer session in Philadelphia is planning another two weeks (July 9 through 20) leadership conference for secondary-school leaders. In addition to University staff members, other nationally known consultants will be present, each for one of more days to assist in making the conference functional. Whereas *administration* was stressed last summer, *leadership in the improvement of instruction* in junior and senior high schools is the 1956 area of focus.

One may register for the conference on a "with or without" graduate credit basis, although the tuition and matriculation fees will be the same in each case (\$60). Obviously credit earned in this connection can be applied towards administrative and supervisory certificate requirements or towards a doctoral program in education administration at the University.

Last summer over one half of the enrollees had all, or part, of their conference costs paid by their local boards of education. The summer school has estimated that \$200 will cover the total average cost of the conference, exclusive of transportation. By total cost is meant tuition charges, matriculation and deposit fees, books and materials, educational tours, and board and lodging. Applications for admission to the conference must be received on or before May 1st, 1956. Write to Hugh M. Shafer, Co-ordinator, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia 4, Pennsylvania.

INTERNATIONAL WORKSHOP ON HUMAN RELATIONS—Twenty-five leaders in education and civic life from the United States and an equal number from the free countries of Asia will be invited to attend an *International Workshop on Human Relations in the Pacific Area* at the University of California at Los Angeles, June 20 through July 26, 1956. Under the guidance of an internationally representative staff, directed by Dr. Stewart G. Cole. Educational Director of the National Conference of Christians and Jews, Inc., the members will explore each other's cultures for the mutual enrichment of the people bordering the Pacific Ocean. They will seek methods for resolving specific community and school problems in international relations as human relations. Daily workshop sessions, special-interest discussion groups, the experience of a living-in workshop, regular field trips, and individual conferences and projects are planned. The University offers six units of graduate credit. The workshop is being co-sponsored by the National Conference of Christians and Jews. For further particulars write to the Department of Conferences and Special Activities, University Extension, University of California, Los Angeles.

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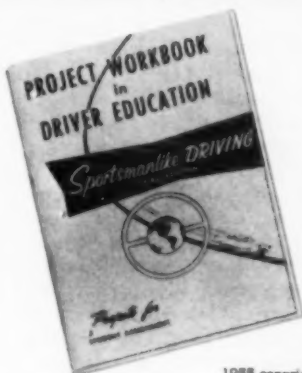
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A COURSE ON WHEELS—A goodly part of early American history started in New England. This course extending from June 25 to July 6, 1956, aims at acquainting students and teachers with these materials through actually visiting the places where much of this history was enacted. This is primarily a travel course—"a course on wheels." It will be supplemented by appropriate lectures either before a trip is taken or by one given on the scene. The motor tour of 600 or 700 miles will cover the scenes of (1) First Settlements; (2) Early Educational Efforts; (3) The Westward Movement; (4) The Revolutionary War Period; (5) The Age of the "Chinese" Trade; (6) The Early National Period; (7) The Day of the Clipper Ship; and (8) The Beginning of New England's Industries.

The cost of the tour is \$175 per person. It includes all transportation sight-seeing with admissions to special lectures. All meals (and tax) from lunch the first day to lunch on the 12th day, except during free week-end (6th and 7th days), are provided. Dormitory accommodations are provided at Boston University for the first 7 nights. A tuition fee of \$52.50 for three credit hours is payable directly to Boston University if a person desires college credit. For information write to Boston University School of Education, Travel Study Course, Boston, Massachusetts.

FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION—The Family Student Center is planning to offer another workshop on *Family Life Education and Evaluation* this summer, from July 9 to 27. Mounting professional interest in procedures developed at the Family Student Center for creating greater competence in family living has led to the scheduling for the third consecutive year of a summer workshop at the University of Chicago. The basic framework for this approach has been outlined in *Identify and Interpersonal Competence*, by Nelson N. Foote and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. This workshop will also furnish practice in evaluating the effects of these newer methods. By bringing teachers in schools and colleges together with persons from family agencies which engage in community programs, both theory and practice will be enriched through this exchange of experience. It will be particularly useful for persons who conduct programs of preparation for marriage and parenthood. Teachers from both high schools and colleges, social workers, counselors, parent educators, and group workers in the field of the family are eligible to attend. All inquiries are welcomed. The registration fee for those seeking credit is \$85 (there is an additional \$5 admission fee for those who have not previously been admitted to the University of Chicago). Credit for the program is one course (three quarter-hours).

For noncredit students registration is \$70. Elementary-school and secondary-school teachers in private or public schools and such teachers who are on leave of absence are granted a 50 per cent remission of the \$85.00 if they take the course for credit. For further information write to Mrs. Winifred L. O'Donnell, Secretary, Family Study Center, The University of Chicago, 5757 Drexel Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois. Another workshop, "A Therapeutic Approach in Working with Individuals and Groups," is to be offered at the University from June 25 to July 6 by the Counseling Center. Those interested in counseling may wish to consider attending both programs. Inquiries regarding the Counseling Workshop should be addressed to John Shlien, Secretary, Counseling Center, 5737 Drexel Avenue, Chicago 37.

READING CONFERENCE—The Second Annual Conference on Reading at Concordia College, Moorehead, Minnesota, has been scheduled for June 18-22,

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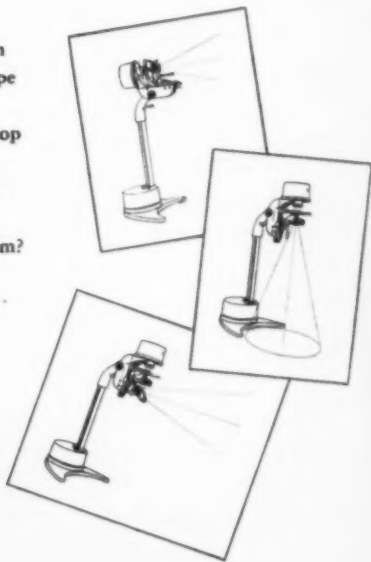
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1956. The main speakers for the five-day conference will be Dr. Emmett A. Betts, Director, the Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pennsylvania; Miss Carolyn M. Welch, Supervisor, The Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pennsylvania; and Dr. P. A. Killgallon, Director, The Reading Clinic, University of Oregon.

The Conference faculty includes supervisors, reading teachers, and consultant teachers from Virginia, Iowa, Wisconsin, Michigan, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Minnesota. An exhibit of representative publishing companies will be available to registered delegates for their examination and discussion. The theme of the Conference is "Basic Essentials in Reading." Demonstrations, lectures, panel discussions, and group discussions will center on the problems of individual differences, reading inventory, phonics, word perception, interests, and comprehension. Inquiries may be addressed to Walther G. Prausnitz, Head, English Department, Concordia College, Moorhead, Minnesota.

NEA JOURNAL DESCRIBES 1956 EDUCATIONAL TRAVEL PROGRAM—More than 1,000 American teachers will chalk up some 2¼ million miles this summer through the "Travel To Learn" program of the National Education Association (NEA). Highlights of the 1956 schedule of tours were announced in a special "Educational Travel Section" published in the February 1956 issue of the *NEA Journal*. Forty-two tours, open to all NEA members at special travel rates, have been planned for this summer. Itineraries include Europe, the Near East, South America, Panama and Central America, Mexico, Hawaii, Alaska, The Rocky Mountain and Pacific Northwest states, New England, and Canada.

The entire educational travel program is planned and carried out by the NEA Division of Travel Service. In his *Journal* article, Division Director Paul H. Kinsel answers "Some Questions About the NEA Travel Service" and points out that the division has now become an important instrument of inservice education for teachers through its tour program. Credit for NEA tour participation has been granted to teachers by many local school systems for points toward salary increments and by some state department of education for certification renewal. College credit may be earned in 11 subject-matter fields for participation in certain tours.

VERMONT'S HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES—The state of Vermont had 3,551 students who were graduated from high school last spring. A study of this group by the State Department of Education reveals that 38.49% of them continued their education beyond the 12th grade. It is interesting to note that less than 1½ per cent of the graduates were reported as "location unknown," and that of those graduates employed, 91.5 per cent were employed within the state.

CLASSROOM EXCHANGE WITH ASIA AND THE NEAR EAST—*Classroom Exchange*, a program for cultural interchange between secondary-school classes in the United States and Asia, invites social studies teachers grades 9-12 to apply now for participation in the program next school year. A team of two American educators are arranging the program. Walter Ludwig teaches social studies at the Mamaroneck Senior High School and was an exchange teacher in England. Clarice Ratcliff Ludwig, his wife, is program specialist at the Institute of International Education, New York. They will spend the school year 1956-57 visiting secondary classes in Asian countries,

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answering questions about life in the United States, and recording on tape the views of Asian students on questions asked by American youth. Music and folk songs will also be recorded and exchanged. The visitors will tell each Asian class about an American class willing to exchange ideas, experiences, and cultural materials. Greater understanding between the youth of Asia and the United States is hoped for from the interchange. Project-minded teachers wishing their classes to be considered for participation in the program should send a stamped, self-addressed envelope for further information and an application blank to **CLASSROOM EXCHANGE**, 359 Westchester Avenue, Crestwood, Tuckahoe 7, N. Y.

SUMMER SESSIONS FOR SCIENCE, ENGLISH AND SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS—Several special programs of courses will be offered this summer by the Harvard Summer school for teachers of science, social studies, and English. Offered through the co-operation of the faculty of education and the faculty of arts and sciences, these programs are designed to enable teachers to deepen and expand their knowledge of the subjects which they teach through regular courses in those fields. In order that the courses may be as valuable to teachers as possible, the programs relate their content to the school curriculum and demonstrate methods by which teachers may use the materials of the courses in their own classrooms.

Each course carries 4 units of credit, begins July 2, and ends August 15. A registration fee of \$15, and a tuition fee of \$70 is charged for each. Courses to be offered are: special course for teachers of English on the Twentieth-Century English Novel; Recent Developments in Physical Science; History of Far Eastern Civilization; Problems in the Teaching of Far Eastern Studies, and National Government of the United States. Address all correspondence to Harvard University, Summer School of Arts and Sciences and of Education, 2 Weld Hall, Cambridge 38, Massachusetts.

THE AUDIO-VISUAL BUDGET—A recommendation that not less than one per cent of a school's instructional budget be allocated for audio-visual in instructional materials was made by the Audio-Visual Commission on Public Information of nine national organizations in the instructional materials field, following a two-day meeting in Washington.

LO, THE POOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHER!—Neither the public nor the practitioners in education take the educational researcher seriously, says William H. Bristow, himself a toiler in the field. The New York City head of curriculum research for the Board of Education argues this way: "No aspect of the curriculum has been better researched than reading. In no other field do we know as much about what will happen if we apply a particular program or technique to an individual or a group. Yet a book which shows little appreciation of what is involved in the teaching process, and even less about the drawing of generalizations from data, throws the whole nation into a dither. I dare say if a comparable report had been issued in any other discipline, sharp accounting would have been required. But such an accounting is difficult in our field."

DRINKING IN THE HOME—Revealing information has emanated from the annual conference of state liquor administrators in New York City. The studies showed that high-school students permitted alcoholic beverages at home drank more heavily away from home than those who were not allowed to drink alcohol within the bounds of their own homes. It was demonstrated, for example, that the students in Nassau county, New York, who were allowed to drink at

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home, drank about twice as much when they went out. In another instance, it was shown that Kansas high-school students who drank either beer or hard liquor at home during the average week, drank about 12 times as much away from home as they consumed at home. The reports said that, if the parents did not want their children to drink, they "can greatly increase the probability of getting their wish if they themselves abstain." The report was made after prolonged and serious study by sociologists from major universities, including the University of Wisconsin.

There is a stereotype to the effect that, if young people are acquainted with their beer and liquor in the home, they will be better equipped to handle themselves when alcohol becomes available to them when they are out with others. This myth is emphatically quashed by the findings given out at the conference of liquor administrators in New York. Drinking in the home and the familiarizing of young people with such beverages within the home tends to encourage, not deter, or moderate, drinking among young people. Or, as the experts put it, just because a child drinks moderately at home does not mean that he will use moderation when he gets away from home. There is not a district attorney, a juvenile judge, police officer, or teacher who would not say that drinking by young people is not a problem, and a grave one. The evidence is clear and bountiful that if parents want to minimize their children's drinking and the resultant problems, their example in the home can go a long way toward solving a problem that desperately needs solution.—*Daily Leader* Shawano, Wisconsin.

SIX ALBUMS OF FOLK SONGS—The Library of Congress has reissued its first six albums of recorded folk songs on long-playing (33-1/3 rpm) records. Until now, its "Folk Music of the United States and Latin America" series has been available only in albums of five (78 rpm) records each. Now an entire album is contained on the two sides of a single microgroove record.

The six albums now available on LP records include Anglo-American ballads and shanties, humorous and nonsense songs, Southern mountain songs and dance tunes, Negro blues, shouts, hollers, reels, work-songs, spirituals, fiddle and banjo tunes, harmonica airs, the game and religious songs of the Louisiana French and the Spanish Americans of the Southwest, and Indian ceremonial and social songs and dances. The Library's recorded folk music may be purchased only from the Recording Laboratory, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C. The LP records are \$4.50 each, plus the 10 per cent excise tax and the shipping cost. Descriptive order blanks will be mailed free of charge upon request to the Recording Laboratory.

MICHIGAN EXPANDS DRIVER EDUCATION—In a special session of the legislature held in November 1955, Michigan approved a comprehensive program in traffic safety education, the December 15, 1955 issue of the *Michigan Education Journal* reports. One highlight of the legislation is a provision for financial reimbursement to public schools at the rate of \$25 per student completing an approved course. This grant will be made only for students receiving both classroom and practice driving instruction. An important requirement set forth in the legislation is that after February 1957 persons under 18 years of age must have passed an approved driver education course to secure an operator's permit. At the present time about 400 of some 550 Michigan high schools offer some type of driver education program.

STATISTICS FOR SCHOOLMEN—Each month military establishments turn over \$18 million worth of surplus property to schools, colleges, and

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hospitals. * * * There are about 7,600 school districts in the United States today which operate no schools. * * * A worker in the United States today can turn out about six times as much as his great-grandfather 100 years ago. If this ascending curve continues, his great grandson 100 years from now will be able to produce in one seven-hour day all that a man produces in the present forty-hour week. * * * More degrees were granted in Education (53,254) than in any other field during 1953-54. Engineering was second with 22,500 degrees. The figures include bachelor, masters, and Ph.D. degrees. * * * Eight million persons are now receiving Federal old-age and survivors insurance benefits. Within a few years, teachers and other educational workers will go on the rolls, as educational workers, newly covered under the plan, retire from work.

SCIENCE IN NEW YORK CITY'S HIGH SCHOOLS—During the past summer, Samuel Schenberg, Supervisor of Science for New York Schools, asked the principals of the 85 high schools (54 academic and 31 vocational) how many science classes were taught last year by teachers holding no science license. Thirty-four academic high schools reported that they employed 35 nonscience substitutes for one or both terms; hence 165 classes, containing about 5,800 students, were taught by teachers untrained in the field. Twenty of the vocational high schools used 61 nonscience teachers in 305 classes, with approximately 9,900 students. For the present school year the prospects were no better, though Dr. Schenberg hoped the deficit could be reduced to 63 science teachers by the time the schools reopened last fall. Even so, about 10,500 students would be affected, or roughly eight per cent of the city's school population. Dr. Schenberg hopes that the new salary schedule for teachers with master's degrees will help attract more qualified people. Others fear that even this boost, amounting to slightly more than \$50 a month, will not suffice to offset the low morale, the excessively large classes and heavy teaching load, and the lock-step system of promotions.—*Engineering and Scientific Manpower Newsletter*—February 14, 1956.

THE \$64,000 QUESTION—The television program, "The \$64,000 Question," has attracted audiences estimated as large as 55,000,000. It has also brought to the notice of listeners, and most emphatically to the attention of participants, the heavy cut Uncle Sam demands from the winnings of successful people. In the first four months of the program, four persons successfully doubled their money up to the \$32,000 mark, answering questions on such varied topics as the Bible, opera, food, and baseball. Reaching \$32,000 three of the contestants dropped out. It took the raw courage of a United States marine, Captain Richard McCutchen, to attempt the \$64,000 question. Excusing his impudence, he explained: "I belong to a very proud organization."

The participants have had a lot of good, free advice. Hundreds of listeners from all over the country have written or telegraphed warnings that \$64,000 is not, as it might seem to be, double \$32,000 but only about half again as much. The rules of the income tax supersede the laws of arithmetic. To a single person with \$4,000 income from other sources, a winning of \$32,000 gets assessed an additional federal tax of \$15,400 leaving \$16,600 as the actual prize. An extra \$32,000 winning would get assessed a tax of \$23,292, increasing the prize by no more than \$8,708. Thus he is risking an assured \$16,600 for a chance to win an additional \$8,708.—*The Clarkson Letter*.

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from Evanston Township High School parents in Evanston, Illinois, was the purpose of ten simultaneous home-room meetings held by the PTA. The program was arranged in each home room by a member of the PTA Parent Education Committee and a member of the Lay Advisory Council. In some of the home rooms, the program was a panel; in others, a master of ceremonies led the general discussion. Refreshments were served at each meeting. Explaining the objectives, Mrs. Arwed C. Boitel, PTA program chairman, said, "It should be kept in mind that the purpose of these home-room meetings is neither to extol the present methods nor to tear them down, but to bring some constructive ideas for improvement through parents' discussion of what they consider best for their children. The home-room director is not to help in planning or running the meetings, but he and his staff is present to answer questions." A recorder was provided for each meeting to take minutes, which were sent to absent parents and will subsequently be used as a basis for action. Through the PTA and through the Lay Advisory Council, many parents have indicated a keen interest in having meetings of this type on the subject of the student's relationship to his home room, according to Mrs. Boitel—*Here's Your High School*.

THE HOW AND WHY OF REFERENCE TOOLS—Since 1927, teachers and librarians have found *Find It Yourself* (64 pp., 40c each, 10 or more copies @ 20 cents each;) an indispensable aid in teaching and how's and why's of reference tools and libraries. Like its predecessors, this fourth revised edition is designed to be used in the fifth through the ninth-grade levels. Its flexible organization, moreover, makes it possible for a teacher to use it as the basis of a separate course or to fit it into established classes. This flexibility stems from the arrangement of the text into eight lessons dealing with books, dictionaries, general encyclopedias, classification and the card catalog, *Readers Guide*, special reference books, pamphlets and visual aids, and taking notes.

Self-teaching is facilitated by the "Pre-Test" which contains 50 questions. Students are requested to take this test before receiving any library instruction so that they can see for themselves the kind of training they need most in the use of library tools. The problems for each lesson are divided into two parts. The first is the "bibliography problem," planned to be used when a bibliography is to be prepared, and when the lessons are to be given consecutively as a library unit. The second part consists of a variety of problems in which there is some element of choice on the part of the pupil.

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A DIRECTORY OF PEOPLE WORKING WITH GIFTED CHILDREN

—In the interest of facilitating exchange of thinking amongst workers and of encouraging more action, the Committee on Gifted Children of the Division of School Psychologists of the American Psychological Association is undertaking the compilation of a Directory of psychologists, educators, and others who are involved in programs of any sort for gifted children or who are engaged in research or writing concerning gifted children. All persons who are interested in appearing in the Directory are invited to communicate with the Chairman of the Committee, Dr. D. W. Kern, 22 Louis Street, Trumbull, Connecticut, who will return to the writer the Directory information blank to be filled out. The Committee wishes also to receive as many suggestions as possible of names and addresses of persons with whom the Committee may initiate correspondence to determine their interest in being listed in the Directory.

TEACHING ABOUT COLONIAL WILLIAMSBURG—A series of manuals for teachers and leaders of adult groups has been released by Colonial Williamsburg for use in the interpretation of five documentary films which relate to the part played by Williamsburg in the founding of this country. The manuals, newest addition to Colonial Williamsburg's film distribution program—which includes both films, slides, and filmstrips—may be used either in classroom instruction or during a showing of a film to a service club or interest group. They are sent with each film rented or purchased from Colonial Williamsburg, and they are also available upon request from the Director of Film Distribution, Colonial Williamsburg, Inc. The manuals were prepared under the supervision of Hall Bartlett, Citizen Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University. Each guide includes a synopsis of the film, suggestions for use, suggestions for special class projects, reports and other individual and group activities, reading lists, and other information useful in the interpretation of the various films. A separate manual has been prepared for each film.

Films currently available are:

Williamsburg Restored, a three-chapter story of Williamsburg's progress from the 18th century to the 20th century and back to the 18th century.

Decision at Williamsburg, a unified picture of the political causes of the American Revolution, done with frames that include copies of famous paintings as well as still photographs.

The Colonial Printer—in which a teenaged printer's apprentice discovers that the British Marines, under orders from the governor, are removing the gunpowder stores from the Magazine in 1775—illustrates the importance and operation of a colonial newspaper.

Eighteenth-Century Life, covers a day in the life of a typical Williamsburg resident of the mid 1700's.

Flower Arrangements of Williamsburg, is the story of the flower arrangements used in the 18th century and how they have been recreated today.

The films range from 20 to 44 minutes in length. In addition, Colonial Williamsburg has just placed in circulation two filmstrips for use only by schools. These filmstrips—*Cooking in Colonial Days* (46 frames) and *Independence in the Making* (61 frames) also have manuals, prepared by a member of Colonial Williamsburg's interpretive staff.

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Also, send us any other information or materials relating to your 1955-56 commencement that you think will be of interest to other schools.

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1956 TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND—"The proof of the pudding is in the eating." The truth of that old saying is well demonstrated in the new *Teacher Supply and Demand Study* released by the National Education Association (NEA). Prospects for a total of 96,079 new teachers graduating from college in June, marking a 9.9 per cent increase over the June 1955, total, are revealed in the study. Even more encouraging are figures showing a corresponding increase in every one of the high-school teaching fields.

How about the need for teachers? The report indicates that schools will need 175,000 new teachers by September 1956. This estimate includes those needed to meet increased enrollments, to relieve over-crowding and half-day schedules, to expand educational programs in neglected areas, to replace the most woefully unprepared teachers now in service, and to fill the vacancies of 85,000 qualified teachers who, experience has shown, will leave the profession this year.

If all of the 96,079 prepared teachers graduating in June entered teaching, the deficit would still be approximately 86,000. Considering the similarity between this final deficit and the replacement of loss figure set at 85,000, the report points out the obvious necessity of finding some more effective method of retaining qualified teachers in service. For a copy of this 46-page report, write to the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

TO TEACHERS ABOUT TO RETIRE—Making the most of the crowning golden years is no less important than making the most of the earlier years. To do so one must plan for them. To any teacher who is within ten years of retirement Senior Citizens of America will send free on request as a part of its public service a special packet of material dealing with the problems and opportunities of retirement. Write Joy Elmer Morgan, President, Senior Citizens of America, 1129 Vermont Avenue, Northwest, Washington 5, D. C., asking for SCA Pre-retirement Packet.

WHAT ABOUT THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?—Reprints of the article entitled "The Daily Schedule in Junior High Schools" which appears on page 176-221 of this issue of THE BULLETIN are available at 50c each with the following discounts: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10 or more copies, 20%. Orders for \$2 or less must be accompanied by payment. Send your orders to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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DURING any given school year your association receives hundreds of letters making inquiries for information concerning a great variety of subjects that pertain to the secondary school. In many instances these letters request information as to specific schools that are trying to solve certain problems or are giving attention to specific activities. Included in these letters are requests for information about such areas as follows:

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4. High schools offering courses in journalism
5. Various methods of developing the master class schedule
6. Drop-out studies
7. Solving the smoking problem of the pupil and faculty
8. Approximate cost for a student to attend high school
9. Methods of grouping pupils
10. High schools that present different types of diplomas to their graduates
11. High schools that offer no algebra below the tenth grade
12. High schools that offer no Latin below the tenth grade
13. High schools that have developed criteria for the selection of textbooks
14. Special classes for the improvement of reading
15. School sportsmanship code
16. Have a balanced program of home work so that no pupils have heavy assignments some nights and none other nights
17. What percentage of graduates are married 90 days after graduation, Boys, Girls, Total
18. Junior high schools that have developed evaluative criteria

If your school participates in one or more of these areas, would you please write a brief description of each (include pupil enrollment of your high school) and mail it to the address below? We assure you that your response will be appreciated.

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Consumer Education Study

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For Your Information

The first part of the February 1956 issue of THE BULLETIN, entitled *What Should We Expect of Education?* by Dr. Homer T. Rosenberger, is also available in book form with hardbound covers.

We thought so well of it that we have the impression that many of our members would want a hardbound copy for their library in addition to the regular copy of THE BULLETIN. We are now filling orders for this book. We shall be glad to receive your order.

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